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ALGERIA.

PAST AND PRESENT

CONTAINING A DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTRY, THE MOORS, KABYLES, ARABS, TURKS, JEWS, NEGROES, COLOGLIES, AND OTHER INHABITANTS; THEIR HABITS, MANNERS, CUSTOMS, &c., TOGETHER WITH NOTICES OF THE ANIMAL AND VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS, MINERALS, CLIMATE, &c.

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WITH A REVIEW OF ITS HISTORY FROM THE EARLIEST PERIODS TO THE PRESENT TIME.

THE WHOLE CAREFULLY REVISED AND CORRECTED,

FROM NOTES MADE DURING A PERSONAL VISIT IN 1843, AND FROM THE WORKS OF ANCIENT AND MODERN HISTORIANS, TRAVELLERS, &c. OFFICIAL DOCUMENTS OF THE FRENCH GOVERNMENT, THE MEMOIRES OF THE CORPS OF SAVANS, &c., &c.

BY J. H. BLOFELD, Esq.

"I had never before seen the hot countries—
I saw another world—the grass, the trees, the birds,
the animals, and the tribes of men, all was new,
I was astonished!"

THE EMPEROR BAUBER.

LONDON:
T. C. NEWBY, 72, MORTIMER STREET, CAVENDISH Sq.

1844.

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TO

The Right Honorable

LORD VISCOUNT EXMOUTH,

The following Work on

ALGERIA,

In which the Particulars of the Memorable Expedition of his Lordship's Grandfather, in 1816, forms so proud and interesting a passage,

IS

With permission,

Most respectfully Inscribed,

BY

His Lordship's

Most Obedient,

Most Humble,

and Obliged Servant,

THE AUTHOR.

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ALGERIA.

THIS country, before its conquest by the French, in 1830, was called the Kingdom of Algiers. It formed part of the ancient Mauritania and Numidia, and in later times, was one of the most considerable districts of that part of Africa, known by the name of Barbary, and the chief of the piratical States.

According to the latest and best computations, it extends about four hundred and eighty miles in length from east to west; but is very unequal in breadth, varying from forty to one hundred miles. It is bounded on the north by the Mediterranean, on the east, by the river Zaine, the ancient Tusca, which divides it from Tunis; on the west, by the Twunt and the mountains of Trara, which separate it from Morocco, and on the south, by the Sahara.

The total superficies is calculated at about twenty-two thousand square leagues, only one-fifth less than that of France.

The southern part of Algeria, together with the whole tract of land that lies in that direction between the Atlantic Ocean and Egypt, is sometimes erroneously written Biledulgerid, but its true name is *Blaid el Jeridde*, that is, "the dry country." It is also called the country of dates, with which the inhabitants carry on a very considerable trade, though, excepting the Jerid (a small portion of it that is situated near the lesser Syrtis) all the rest of it is known to the Arabs by no other general name than the Sahara, or Zaarah, that is "the Desert."

Blaid el Jeridde was part of the ancient Numidia and Getulia, mentioned by Ptolemy, Pliny, &c. The Getuli were among the first inhabitants of Africa, and were a barbarous people, living a roving life, like the Tartars, and took up their abode at the first place in which night surprised them.

Algeria formed a part of that immense zone of country which was so rich and flourishing under the Romans, that they called it "the garden of the world," and to have a residence there, was considered by them the highest state of luxury. It is very different with the modern French colonists, all that I questioned upon the subject spoke of Africa with disgust, and regretted their separation from France, and in almost all cases the inhabitants of

the towns were looking forward to accumulating a purse which would enable them to return home at some future period and live at ease.

ALGIERS.

This city, the metropolis of Algeria, is called by the Turks, "*Al Jezeire el gazié*," or "Algiers the warlike," and by the other inhabitants, "*Al Jezeire*." or "the Island," the latter name was given it because there was an island before the city, to which it has since been joined by the mole. It is built on the declivity of a hill fronting to the eastward. It is nearly triangular in form; having for its base the sea front, which is about a mile in length, and rises directly from the water, in such a way that each house from its flat roof commands a view of the sea.

Algiers is built, like most other cities in the east, with narrow winding streets, and obscured by projecting stories and overhanging roofs. The principal streets are those of Bab Azoun, or the gate of Azoun, Bab el Wed, or gate of the river, situated to the north of the preceding. These two streets are separated by an irregular square; they run from north to south three thousand and eighty three feet across the city. At the east of the square which is called the "Place of the Government" is a street called "*Rue de la Marine*" by the French, and which leads to the "gate of France" situated at

the Port, called by the Arabs *Bab at Jezier* or gate of Algiers. In another direction is the street of the Casbah, long, crooked, and narrow, running from the mosque Ali Bedjnem in the street Bab el Oued to "*la Place des Victoires,*" at the foot of the Casbah, which crowns the city three hundred and eighty seven feet above the sea. The street of "*Porte Neuve*" is nearly parallel to the preceding and terminates at one end in the *Place des Victoires,* and at the other at "*Porte Neuve*" or Bab Edjedid at the south of the Casbah. The principal streets are about twenty feet wide, and the others are so close that three men can scarcely walk abreast.. In that part of the city near the Port, the streets are laid out with some regularity, and frequently intersect each other at right angles; but in the upper part of the city, they form a complete labyrinth, and are winding, steep and full of steps. Sometimes, they are only vaulted passages with no other light but what enters from the two extremities, The street "*De la monticule du Diable*" and the street of the "Pyramids" called by the Arabs "the vault of the cats" seem made to mislead the stranger, who after walking about for some time, frequently arrives at the point whence he started, The street of the Casbah, which leads from the lower to the upper part of the town is full of steps on account of its steepness.

When the French arrived at Algiers, the little

trade that existed was carried on principally by weavers of girdles and coarse stuffs, a few dyers and tailors, silk and gold thread spinners, and distillers of rose, jessamine, and orange flower waters ; manufacturers of pipe handles and fine snuffs, joiners, lock and gun-smiths. Some Jews sold stuffs, and others were goldsmiths and money changers,

The shops of Algiers are close upon the street, above which their floors are raised about a yard. The purchaser seldom enters, the shopkeeper sits cross-legged within. These shops are generally so small, that the master can reach any of the goods without rising; but we must not expect to find in them either valuable articles of luxury, or superior elegance. Pipes, tobacco, coffee, sugar, spices, woollen stuffs, cotton goods, essences, fancy articles from Italy made of glass, silk handkerchiefs, from Smyrna, brocaded girdles made at Algiers, and fringed with gold. Mixed up with shops containing these articles are the dirty stalls of butchers, and fruiterers, some streets entirely filled with shoemakers and brokers.

This is the appearance of the trading part of Algiers, with the exception of "the Bazaar of the Fig Tree," which is a small, open space containing the shops of the richest traders; and which is at the same time a *rendezvous* for men of business, and a favourite resort for loungers. There is also a well conducted coffee house, frequented by the *élite* of the native popula-

tion. This bazaar is the prettiest lounge in the city, particularly between eleven and twelve in the morning, and here the most beautiful dresses, the richest carpets, and the best arms are to be seen exposed for sale. It is not uncommon to meet with important personages of the former Regency, which the French invasion has rendered idle, by depriving them of their former occupations. Foreigners of distinction resort to this place, as the only one where they can see the fashionable portion of the native inhabitants.

All the Moorish houses are constructed upon the same plan, not only in Algiers and the rest of Algeria, but all over Barbary and the coast of the Levant, which seems to have continued the same from the earliest ages to the present time, without the least alteration or improvement. Large doors, spacious chambers, marble pavements, cloistered courts with fountains sometimes playing in them, are certainly conveniences very well adapted to these hot climates. The jealousy also of these people is less likely to be alarmed, while, excepting a small latticed window or balcony, which sometimes looks into the street, all the other windows open into their respective courts, or quadrangles. It is during the celebration only of some public festival, that these houses and their latticed windows are left open.

If we enter one of the principal habitations from the street, we shall first pass through a porch or gateway,

with benches on each side, where the master of the family receives visits and despatches business; few persons, not even the nearest relations, having further admission, except upon extraordinary occasions. Hence we are received into the court, or quadrangle, which, lying open to the weather, is, according to the ability of the owner, paved with marble, or such materials as will immediately carry off the water into the common sewers. When many people are to be admitted, as upon the celebration of a marriage, or any other occasion of rejoicing, the company is rarely or ever received into one of the chambers.

The quadrangle is the usual place of their reception, which is strewed, accordingly, with mats and carpets, and this is called *el woost*, or "the middle of the house." In the Summer season and upon all occasions when a large company is to be received, this court is commonly sheltered from the heat or inclemency of the weather, by a *velum*, or veil, which, being expanded upon ropes from one side of the parapet wall to the other, may be folded or unfolded at pleasure.

The quadrangle is, for the most part, surrounded with a cloister, over which, when the house has one or more stories, there is a gallery erected, of the same dimensions as the cloisters, having a ballustrade, or else a piece of carved or lattice work round it, to prevent people falling down into the court.

From the cloisters or galleries we are conducted into large, spacious chambers, of the same length with the court, but seldom communicating with one another. One of them frequently serves for a whole family, particularly when a father permits his married children to live with him, or when several persons join in the rent of the same house. Whence it is that the cities of these countries, which are generally much inferior in extent to those of Europe, are so exceedingly populous, that great numbers of the inhabitants are swept away by the plague, and other contagious distempers. In houses of a superior description these chambers, from the middle of the wall to the ground, are covered and adorned with velvet or damask hangings, of white, blue, red or other colors, but the upper part is embellished with more permanent ornaments, being adorned with the most beautiful arabesques, the latter, as is generally known, consist entirely of imaginary foliages, plants, stalks &c., they are used by Moors, Arabs, and other Mahometans, because their religion forbids them to make any images or figures of men or other animals.

The ceiling is generally of wainscot, either curiously painted, or else thrown into a variety of panels with gilded mouldings and sentences of the Koran intermixed. The floors are either paved with painted tiles glazed, or plaster of terrace: as these people either sit cross-legged, or lie at full

length, the floors are covered over with carpets, which are generally of tich materials. Along the sides of rhe wall or floor, a range of narrow beds, or mattresses, are often placed upon these carpets, upon which are laid velvet or damask bolsters. At one end of each chamber there is a little gallery raised three, four, or five feet above the floor, with a ballustrade in front, and with a few steps leading up to it. Here they also place their beds.

The stairs are sometimes placed in the porch, sometimes at the entrance into the court. When there is one, or more stories, they are afterwards continued, through one of the corners of the gallery to the top of the house, to which they conduct through a door, that is constantly kept shut, to prevent their domestic animals from soiling the terrace, and so spoiling the water which falls from it into the cisterns below the court. This door, like most others in this country, is hung, not with hinges but by having the jamb formed at each end into an axle-tree or pivot : of which the uppermost, which is the longest, is received into a corresponding socket in the lintel, while the other falls into a similar cavity in the threshold.

The top of the house, which is always flat, is covered with a strong plaster of terrace ; from which it has obtained the name of "*the terrase.*" The accompanying plate is an exact representation of

this part of a Moorish house in the street of Bal el Oued at Algiers. Upon these terraces several domestic employments are performed; such as drying grain, linen, flax, figs, raisins, &c. &c., and here they can enjoy the cool, refreshing breezes of the evening, converse with one another, and offer up their devotions; but since the late conquest and the erection of the high, French houses, which completely overlook the adjoining Moorish terraces, the natives in such localities make their appearance there but seldom. Out of deference to the feelings of the Algerines on this point, the French government of Algeria at one time intended to forbid the erection of houses, by the French, in the upper part of the town.

To most of the Moorish houses there is a smaller one annexed, which sometimes rises one story higher than the house: at other times it consists of one or two rooms only, and a terrace, while others that are built, as they frequently are, over the porch or gateway, have, excepting the ground floor, which they want, all the conveniences that belong to the principal house. There is a door of communication from them into the gallery of the house, kept open or shut at the discretion of the master of the family: besides another door, which communicates immediately from a back stair-case, down into the porch or street, without causing the least disturbance to the house.

These back houses are known by the name of

alee or oleah, for the house itself is called dar, and in them strangers are usually lodged and entertained, and here the sons of the family are permitted to keep their concubines ; here also the males are accustomed to retire from the hurry and noise of their families, to be more at leisure for meditation or diversions : besides the use they are at other times put to, for wardrobes and magazines.

The house of the English Consulate, in the street of the consuls at Algiers, was built by a rich Turk, and is a fine specimen of an Algerine mansion. Through the courtesy of the polite and very efficient vice-consul, A. Tulin Esq. I saw the whole of the interior.

Their Mosques, pronounced Mesgjed, are something like our gothic churches in their interiors, but instead of seats, and benches, they strew the floor with mats, upon which they perform the several stations, sittings, and prostrations that are enjoined in the ceremonies of their religion, and which are so accurately represented in Lane's modern Egyptians. Near the middle of the mosque, particularly of the principal one in each city, called the Jimmah or the great, there is erected a large pulpit, ballustraded round, and with a few steps leading up to it. In this the mufti, or one of the Im-mams, places himself every Friday, " the day of the congregation" as they call it, and explains some portion of the Koran, or else exhorts the people to piety, and good works,

The wall of these mosques next Mecca to which they direct themselves throughout the whole of their devotions, is called the kibla, and in this wall there is commonly a niche representing the presence, and at the same time the invisibility of the Deity. There is usually a minaret or square tower erected upon the opposite end of the mosque, with a flag staff fixed upon the top of it. This minaret the Muedin or crier ascends at the appointed times of prayer, and, after displaying a small flag, calls to the people with a loud voice from each side of it. These minarets and this method of calling the poople to prayer are of great antiquity, and took place as early as the sixty eighth year of the Hegira. These places of the Mahometan worship, the sanctuaries of their marabbutts, the mufties imams and other persons respectively belonging to them are maintained out of certain revenues arising from the rents of lands and houses, which have been either left by will or set apart by the public for these uses.

Algiers has been greatly altered by the French; within the last ten or twelve years, entire streets have been formed or re-constructed, and buildings of several stories have been raised in the Parisian style. Private industry has made great progress, and the European shops contain an assortment of all kinds of commodities; there is no want of articles of luxury or ornament; their bazaars include the

fashions, and novelties of Paris; bronzes, porcelain, glass, rich shawls, embroideries, woollen stuffs, silks, cottons &c., while the shops are numerous, and as various as those in the generality of the best French towns.

Some immense works have been made in the "*Place du Government,*" in the streets "*De la Marine,*" "Bab Azoun," and "Bab el Oued;" these have a handsome appearance with their long galleries, their shops, and the crowds which animate them. In the street of Bab el Oued the passengers are more numerous than those in the Strand, London. In these places, excepting in some parts of the *Rue* Bab el Oued, there are no longer any Moorish houses, all is changed, and were it not for the throng of Turks, Moors, Arabs, Negroes, &c., &c., the stranger might fancy himself in one of the principal French cities.

There are two theatres at Algiers, the "*Grand Theâtre,*" and the "*Theâtre des pétites varietés,*" the performances are very respectable, and the *Grand Theâtre* is sometimes visited by principal performers from Paris.

Besides having some good libraries, there are two well conducted French newspapers published here. One of them, the "Akhbar," I have now before me. It was published on the eighth Ramadhan, 1859, that is, on Thursday the thirty-first of August 1843.

It is published twice a week, half a sheet in size, and contains four pages.

I extract the two following advertisements to show the low rents of Moorish houses and lands, situated a short distance from the metropolis. But the houses built by the French in Algiers fetch nearly the same rents as those in the provincial towns of France :—

"A rural property, situated at Deli Ibrahim, sequestrated upon the head of Hadji Kaddour ben Hadji Mahommed Spaoueldj. It is bounded on the north by the gardens of Hassen Ouharour. On the east and south, by that of Hamed Oulid Mahadi and the road of Zouaou to Deli Ibrahim, and at the west, by the estates of Oulid Taha, &c.

"The above property is of a superficies of twelve thousand one hundred yards (ninety-nine acres fifty *centimes.)*

"Annual rent valued at forty Francs."

"A rural property, situated at Boudjareah containing nearly three acres, &c. &c.

"Annual rent valued at eighty Francs."

Besides these, there is an advertisement of the eternal and ubiquitous, "*Pilules Morrison ou Médicin végétale,*" and a bookseller announces "The Smiths," "*par,*" the Author of "The Maid's Husband," and

"Monsieur Beille warns the tradesmen and dealers

of Algiers that he will not pay the debts that Madame Beille may contract."

There is a deficiency of good water at Algiers, and though there is a tank or cistern in every house, yet a want of it is often felt, because it rains but seldom, The chief supply is from a spring on a hill, the water of which is conveyed by pipes to above a hundred fountains.

This metropolis has numerous public baths kept by Europeans and natives. The following account of an Algerine hot bath is by an Englishman :—

I went attended by the French interpreter ; we were carried into a saloon handsomely illuminated, and covered with mats, where they undressed us, and afterwards covered us with two napkins, the one tied round us like a petticoat, and the other upon our shoulders. Hence we were led into another chamber which was agreeably warm, where we remained some time, the better to prepare us for the sudden excess of heat into which we were to pass. Next we proceeded to the grand saloon of the bath, which is covered with a spacious dome and paved with white marble, having several closets round it. We were told to sit down upon a circular marble seat in the middle of the hall, which we had no sooner done than we became sensible of a very great increase of heat, after this each of us, separately, was taken into a closet of a milder temperature, where, after placing a white cloth on the floor, and

taking off our napkins, they laid us down, leaving us to the further operations of two naked, robust negroes. These men, newly brought from the interior of Africa, were ignorant of the Arabic spoken at Algiers, so I could not tell them in what way I wished to be treated, and they handled me as roughly as if I had been a Moor inured to hardship. Kneeling with one knee upon the ground, each took me by the leg, and began rubbing the soles of my feet with a pumice stone. After this operation on my feet, they put their hands into a small bag, and rubbed me all over with it as hard as they could. The distortions of my countenance must have told them what I endured, but they rubbed on smiling at each other and sometines giving me an encouraging look, indicating by their gestures the good it would do me. While they were thus currying me, they almost drowned me by throwing warm water upon me with large silver vessels, which were in the basin under a cock fastened in the wall. When this was over, they raised me up, putting my head under the cock, by which means the water flowed all over my body; and, as if this was not sufficient, my attendants continued plying their vessels. Then, having dried me with very fine white napkins, they each of them very respectfully kissed my hand. I considered this as a sign that all my torment was over, and was going out to dress myself, when one of the negroes, grimly smiling, stopped me, till the other returned with

a kind of earth, which they began to rub all over my body, without consulting my inclination. I was as much surprised to see it take off all the hair, as I was pained in the operation; for this earth is so quick in its effect that it burns the skin if left upon the body. This being finished, I went through a second ablution, after which one of them seized me behind by the shoulders, and setting his two knees against the lower part of my back, made my bones crack so that for a time I thought they were entirely dislocated. Nor was this all, for after whirling me about like a top to the right and left, he delivered me to his comrade, who used me in the same manner: and then, to my no small satisfaction, opened the closet door. I imagined that I had been a long time under their hands, but these servants are so quick and dexterous in these operations, that on consulting my watch, I found it had lasted but half an hour.

The women have their particular baths, where no man dares to enter under any pretence whatever. At the same time these inviolable recesses are the nurseries of intrigue, for women being accompanied to these places by female slaves, young men are often introduced in the dress of girls.

Three of the Mosques have been turned into Roman Catholic places of worship; one of them is the French Cathedral Church; this has some very beautiful arabesques on the walls and ceiling, and

the doors have flowers carved upon them in a style not excelled by Grindling Gibbons.

The population of this city, before the French conquest was supposed, by the natives, to amount to seventy thousand. It now possesses, according to the most probable computation, about thirty thousand native inhabitants; and their numerical proportion may be estimated as follows:—

Moors,	17,000
Jews,	5,000
Turks,	4,000
Negroes,	2,000
Kabyles and Arabs,	1,000
Biskris, Mozabites, &c.	1,000

To these must be added thirty thousand, six hundred and ninety-five Europeans, which will give a total of sixty thousand, six hundred and ninety-five persons.

If we consider, on the one hand, that the Moors, having no registries of births and deaths, could not afford any precise information—and, on the other, that their religion and their own national feelings forbid them to allow Europeans to penetrate into their houses, especially into the apartments of their women—it will be understood what difficulties lie in the way of a complete census.

The following description of most of the European settlers in this metropolis and other parts of the

colony, is written by a Frenchman, M. Aynard de la Tour du Pin :—

French, Germans, and Swiss agriculturists and artizans, have gone to the promised land of Algiers for profitable employment, but have found nothing but beggary, with the immorality that attends it ;. and depending upon public support, they have become incapable of honest labour. So that a wretched lazzaroni threaten to spring up from the families of hardy peasants who constituted the first emigration. But the new system has invited a far worse class of colonists than these to Algiers They are the scum of the sea-ports of France, and Spain, Italy and Greece. Men who have forgotten home, and who speak a jargon of all the languages in Europe : men who have tried all professions with equal want of reputation and success. Every where and in every thing they have been unfortunate. Each has a story to tell of his grievances and the wrongs he has suffered from his government. And they are all martyrs to liberty. But the fraud is so gross, that when these men meet, they fairly laugh in each others faces. Such is the higher class of society brought to Algiers. These are the men whom Europe sends to enlighten the poorer colonists, and to be an example to Africa. A third class follows, who will ruin the place, because conduct is as indispensable to success as capital. They are men who have been ruined over

and over by their folly in all parts of the world. Speculators from England, from the United States of America, and from France, have flocked to Algiers, contributing nothing to its progress but their evil destiny ; and they are most assuredly fated to repeat the failures which were the sole causes of their coming here. Their wretched activity is never satisfied, unless when adding to the sum of loss which has always distinguished their career.

" These are the sorts of inhabitants France has given to Algiers : and the result is only what might be expected from the acts of such agents."

In 1833, there were two thousand nine hundred and twenty houses, one hundred and forty eight public fountains, fourteen synagogues, one Roman Catholic chapel, one hundred and twenty mosques, and marabbutts or chapels, and forty nine schools for boys and girls. Outside the city there are a great number of sepulchres, as also cells or chapels dedicated to Marabbutts or reputed saints.

By an *arrêté* of the Governor, dated the twenty sixth of July 1843, every inhabitant is compelled to sweep, or cause to be swept, every day before eight in the morning, that part of the public way contiguous to his house, shop, warehouse, court or garden, and to clear away the mud from the pavement opposite his dwelling, as far as the middle of the street. In the passages the same thing is required to be done, and all rubbish to be heaped up in a

corner to be carried away by the scavenger. It is expressly stated that no one is to transfer his own filth to the territory of his neighbour. All glass, broken bottles, earthenware and other objects capable of inflicting wounds, which may be found in the public way, are required to be thrown aside separately. It is forbidden to light a fire in the street, to throw any thing out of the windows, or to feed horses in public except out of nose bags.

From the first of June to the first of October, all the inhabitants are required to water the streets twice a day (at nine in the morning and four in the evening) and for this purpose no other water but that of the fountains and cisterns is permitted to be used.

French steamers, worked by English engineers, and carrying the mails, leave every week for Oran, and the western coast, three times a month for Bone and the east, and every five days for Marseilles. The fares to the latter place are one hundred and twenty, eighty, and fifty francs, for first, second, and third class passengers. The first class, only, have provisions included, and a very good table is provided The second class have comfortable beds in the second cabin, and the third class sleep upon the deck.

I shall finish this account of Algiers with a description of the following building.

The Casbah, situated by the new gate of Algiers, and separated from the city by a high wall mounted with

cannon, was formely the citadel and a palace of the Deys, which contained their magazine and their treasure. A large gateway, with an Arabic inscription above it, opens upon a dark porch, containing an elegant marble fountain. To the left of this vestibule is the court of the "Divan," which is the most important part of the building; it is paved with marble, and surrounded by a covered gallery formed by a range of Moorish arcades, supported by columns of white marble. A fountain, shaded by a magnificent citron tree, tempers the heat of the sun, which is reflected from the polished surfaces of this cloister.

The side of the gallery facing the entrance is formed of a double range of columns, and ornamented with looking glasses, clocks, and beautiful fringe hangings. A stuffed seat, extending all along the side of the gallery, was covered at one end with rich scarlet cloth, on which the Dey sat when he held his divan, or administered justice, or gave audience to Consuls or foreign merchants. It was here that Hussein Dey struck the French Consul, Duval, on receiving an impertinent answer.

Under this gallery, at the end of the stuffed seat, was the gate of the treasury, secured with large locks, and having a strong iron wicket which opened into two or three corridors leading to some small vaulted chambers, without windows or air holes, and divided in the length by a partition of nearly four

feet. In these chambers gold and silver money was piled in large heaps from the Algerian boudjou to the Mexican quadruple. At the time of the French conquest the gold alone in this treasury amounted to nine hundred and sixty thousand pounds sterling.

This interior court of the divan gave light to the apartments of the Dey placed in the upper stories. The first was composed of galleries, in one of which the Dey used to be entertained with music seated under a kind of palanquin ; it communicated with a platform on which was a strong battery of cannon commanding the city. A staircase led to an upper gallery which conducted to the Dey's apartments, consisting of four long, whitewashed rooms, without hangings or glass of any description. A very low door was the entrance to the Harem, consisting of six small chambers surrounded by high walls : these apartments were lighted from an interior court, which was on a level with the first story. This building was rendered gloomy by having on one side of the principal court, a thick wall, and on the other the cannons which commanded the country in the direction of the fort of the Emperor. In some of the walls of these chambers were long and narrow loop holes, to enable the women to look into the upper gallery, which the Dey occasionally visited during his hours of relaxation.

The other buildings enclosed in the Casbah, con-

sisted of a very beautiful mosque, the pavement of which was covered with a rich carpet, a kiosk, an armoury, some magazines, stables, and gardens, or rather courts planted with trees, a menagerie, enclosing lions and tigers, a very large powder magazine, the roof of which was rendered bomb proof by a double layer of bales of wool, a long verandah, and a jessamine bower for the inmates of the harem to walk in, the whole surrounded with walls forty feet high, and terminating in a platform with embrasures, on which were placed about fifty cannons of different sizes, with muzzles painted red and green, one-half of these pointed over the country, and the other half over the city; these latter were to bombard it in case of a revolt.

The furniture of the women's apartments was more sumptuous than elegant. There were expensive carpets, gold and silver stuffs, an astonishing number of cushions of all sizes and shapes, beautifully covered with Arabian embroidery, a profusion of glass and crystal articles, and a variety of heavy mahogany furniture, overloaded with ornaments of gilt metal. Some beds, hung with mosquito curtains of Indian muslin, worked in flowers of gold, and some divans.

The atmosphere of these rooms was filled with the most delicious perfume, combining the fragrance of the rose, jessamine, musk, benzoin, and aloes.

In the harem, also, were a great number of tables,

toilets, chests, and other articles, made of various Asiatic woods, inlaid with mother of pearl, amber, ivory, and ebony ; also beautiful porcelain of china and japan, and an incredible number of fancy articles, unknown in Europe, invented to satisfy the caprices arising from *ennui* and want of occupation.

The Dey's apartments, on the contrary, were extremely plain. There were carpets, divans, pipes, arms, several English clocks, and a barometer ; these were all their contents, the rest had been carried away by the Dey.

Some parts of the Casbah, such as the mosque, the court of the divan, and the apartments of the harem, were excellent specimens of the Moorish architecture ; there were a profusion of ornaments of varied mouldings, elegant arcades and projecting colonades, wreathed or cylindrical, single or double, but all this has been greatly defaced by the French since their conquest. During the first months they tore up all the pavement, whether of marble or mosaic of glazed tiles, in the hope of finding hidden treasures ; there are still, however, some very pretty galleries formed of Byzantine, arcades profusely ornamented and designed with exquisite art and skill, some beautiful rooms, baths, and kiosks, the whole enlivened with fountains of running water, which diffuse a refreshing coolness, and shaded by bananas, trellised vines, citron trees, and numerous other plants and flowers, of the greatest rarity and beauty.

It was in the Casbah that Hussein, the last Dey of Algiers, the son of a Turkish artillery officer, shut himself up for the whole twelve years of his reign, surrounded by his women, his janizaries, and his slaves. His women were eager to anticipate his wishes, and his daughters regarded him affectionately as a good father.

On the capture of Algiers, Hussein was at first greatly depressed, but he recovered his composure eventually, and gave the French the following advice :—

"I recommend you to be on your guard against the Bey of Tittery, he is a complete knave. He will come to offer himself; he will swear to be faithful to you; but he will betray you the first opportunity. I had resolved some time ago to cut off his head; your arrival has spared him that ceremony. The Bey of Constantina, is less perfidious and dangerous. Being an able financier he taxes the people of his province without mercy, and pays his tribute with geeat punctuality; but he is without courage, and character. Men of this stamp are not suited to trying circumstances, as my sorrowful experience has just proved." Of the French consul Duval, he added, "I blame myself for not having made him expiate by the halter his falsehood, baseness, and criminal manœuvres, which have caused my ruin. If I had beheaded or strangled him, I should not have been worse than I now am, since I

have lost my throne, and life is of little moment to me; I should have had the satisfaction of being avenged."

When the French commission, accompanied by the Algerian treasurer, visited the stores of wealth in this building, and the latter had taken them around the chambers, the French, thinking that perhaps there might be something secreted, threatened the treasurer with punishment unless he showed them more, on which he offered to swear upon the Koran, that, that was the whole of the treasure, and he moreover agreed to lose his head if they found any concealed. On which the commissioners let him go unpunished.

The treasurer also took them into the mint, where he acknowledged there were some *ingots* worth about twelve thousand pounds sterling. On this they fastened the door and placed a sentry before it, but during the night, all the *ingots* were carried off, through a hole they made in the wall on the opposite side to that where the sentinel was. The authors of this theft were never discovered, and it was owing to this loss that a report circulated that the government treasure had been plundered to an immense amount.

WORKS OF THE PORT.

In leaving Algiers by the gate of France, which is close to the sea, we cross a mole of about three

hundred paces in length, to a small island almost parallel with the walls of the city. This island is one hundred and eighty paces long by sixty broad. It is entirely covered, to the height of twelve feet, with masonry, which lays on a foundation of reeds and sand. Upon this stone platform are erected strong fortifications and arsenals, together with a lighthouse in the centre. Thus the port presents an irregular square, enclosed with three sides, the city, the mole of Hayradin, and the isle.

On the arrival of the French at Algiers, this port, which had been originally constructed by the labour of thirty thousand christian slaves, under the direction of the celebrated Barbarossa, was in danger of destruction in spite of the immense annual works, the only occupation of thousands of captives. The foundations were undermined, and contained numerous cavities, while the upper parts were decaying and full of large fissures: in short it would soon have become so ruinous, that a violent sea, so frequent and terrible in these offings, would easily have completed its destruction.

The French soon turned their attention to the port, and threw in enormous blocks of granite and marble by the *jetée*. The experience of a few years has proved the efficacy of this plan. But they still had to adopt means to save the mole, which built upon a moving sand, isolated and projecting, and upon which the waves broke with violence, was

partly washed away; and rendered it necessary to lay new foundations. They therefore formed a pile of blocks of marble, all round the mole, this pile however sank below the water the following winter, but its overthrow consolidated a base, upon which it became more easy to establish other works. These embankments were fortunately disposed by the sea much better than it was in the power of art to have accomplished; they formed an inclined plane which blunted the force of the waves, and formed a strong foundation on which they erected other works, that not only protected the ancient ones, but added to the extent of the port.

THE BAY OF ALGIERS.

THIS Bay occupies a space of from eight to nine miles, from east to west, its depth, being about four. It affords no certain anchorage against the storms of winter, being exposed to the north winds. At the entrance of the port, and even within it, vessels have been destroyed by the swell occasioned by these tempests. The works executed since the year 1836, have sensibly produced a great improvement, and no doubt if they are continued for some years longer, as is at present intended by the Algerine government, the harbour will be rendered perfectly secure.

During fine weather, vessels anchor indifferently within a mile, or a mile and a half of the coast, as at that distance there are from sixteen to thirty

fathoms of water, upon a bottom of soft mud, but it is advisable to use chain cables.

Vessels never anchor to the north of the light-house, as all the coast is rocky. They might perhaps opposite the flat shore, before a valley, but there are rocks in the environs, and they could not remain during east winds.

To the south of the city the coast forms a small creek, where it might be supposed vessels could safely shelter; but during the north winds there is a very dangerous surf. The rock continues to the opening of a deep ravine, which discharges the rains from the neighbouring heights into the sea. Beyond this, is an extensive beach, which insensibly curves northwards to the river Hamese, forming thus the greatest part of the circuit of the bay; this beach is generally very wide, and when the sea-breeze sets in, the waves break continually over it, even in fine weather; viewed from the hills by the Fort of the Emperor it presents a wide border of foam.

The eastern part of the bay is closed by a steep and precipitous shore, which rises gradually to Cape Matifou; at this extremity there is a very good anchorage upon a botton of sand and mud, and sheltered from the east winds.

THE PROVINCE OF ALGIERS.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SEA COAST.

This province, which is bounded on the east by the

river Booberak, and on the west, by the Masafrant, is much inferior in extent to either of the others, being, exclusive of the Sahara, scarcely sixty miles in length or breadth. Neither is it in general so mountainous; for the sea coast, to the breadth of five or six leagues, consists principally of rich champaign ground, behind which are a range of rugged mountains, forming part of the Little Atlas, that runs almost in a direct line, in a parallelism with the sea coast; but beyond them, particularly in the neighbourhood of Medeah, Titterie Dosh, and Hamza, the ancient territories of the Tulensü and Banuiri, there are other extensive plains, though none of them equal to those of the Mettijiah. Such is the general plan of this province.

In describing the coast of this province, the first object deserving of notice, after leaving the river Masafrant, is a small round tower, situated upon a rocky cape, that stretches itself about a furlong into the sea. The inhabitants call it Seedy Ferje, from the sanctuary of that saint, which is built upon it, where there are a few walls and cisterns of Roman workmanship. It was here the French army landed in 1830. There are several portions of a Roman road between Seedy Ferje, Ras Acconnatter, and Algiers; and near the tomb of Seedy Halliff, another marabbutt, about midway between Seedy Ferje and Algiers are a number of graves, covered with flat stones, each of them large enough to receive two or three bodies.

The high mountain of Boorjereah, with its contiguous Dashkrahs, are nine miles from Seedy Ferje to the north east. Half a league from them, to the west north-west, is the Ras Accon-natter or Cape Caxines ; after which, about three miles further to the south east, is the Port of "Algiers the warlike," as the Turks call the metropolis.

Four miles to the south east of Algiers is the river Haratch, the ancient Savus. Upon the banks are the ruins of a Roman city which is more likely than Algiers to be the ancient Icosium, placed by the itinerary, as this is, forty-seven miles from Tipasa. Crossing afterwards the Hamese, another considerable stream, is Temendfuse or Matafou, a low cape with a table land, as sailors call a flat hill that rises up in the middle of it. There is a small castle which was built by the Turks for the security of the adjacent roads, once the chief station of their navy, and where there are still the traces of an ancient cothon, with several heaps of ruins, of the same extent as those of Tefessad, and which have also contributed to the fortifications of Algiers. The distance of fifteen Roman miles between these ruins, and those upon the Haratch is the same as that mentioned in the itinerary between the Rusguniæ Colonia and Icosium. Rusguniæ is the same with the Rustoniam of Ptolemy, the Ruthesia of Mela, and the Rusconia of Pliny and others.

Beyond the rivers Regya, Budwowe, Corsoe, Mer-

dass, and Yisser, which run not far from each other, and descend from the adjacent mountains of Atlas, is the small port Jinnett, where a quantity of corn is annually shipped for Europe. Jinnett is a small creek, with tolerable anchorage before it. The sea shore, which, from Algiers to Temendfuse, and thence to this place, has few rocks and precipices, begins here to be very rugged and mountainous; and among these eminences, three leagues further to the east, is the mouth of the Booberak, the eastern boundary of this Province.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE INLAND PLACES.

Bleeda, and Medea, are the only inland cities of this province; the former, probably the Bida Colonia of Ptolemy, is situated at the foot of the Little Atlas, at the entrance of a deep valley, and twenty-nine miles to the south of Algiers.

The environs of this city are rendered beautiful by numerous orange trees, which fill the air with their delicious perfume, while corn fields cover the sides of the neighbouring mountains. At the entrance of the city is a cemetery, of which each tomb is distinguished by a sepulchral stone of a peculiar form. Viewing its ærial minarets, its cupolas, its tile covered roofs, enclosed in groves of trees, and its beautiful vegetation; we cannot be surprised at

the partiality of the inhabitants, who regard it with pride, and call it their Damascus.

With regard to the interior of the city, Bleeda is not deficient in beauty, the streets are regular and much wider than those of Algiers. A wall, twelve feet high, and a mile in circumference, surrounds the town, which has a gate at each of the cardinal points, and which communicate with one another by a street which goes round the interior of the city. The population, which was formerly about fourteen or fifteen thousand, is now reduced to only six.

In 1825, an earthquake having destroyed the greatest part of the city, the Turks wished to rebuild it further from the mountain, but the inhabitants objected to the plan, and it was rebuilt in its former situation. It is now called New Bleeda.

The houses are generally similar to those of Algiers, the apartments look out upon an interior court, and are surmounted by a terrace. There are four stone mosques here, but they are inferior to those of Algiers. In different parts of the town are ruins and "*debris*," the consequence of the earthquake before mentioned.

The environs of Bleeda are well cultivated, there are many fields of corn, potatoes, and flax, surrounded with hedges. The fields do not extend to the north, but to the south they occupy nearly a

fourth of the declivity of the mountains. There are very few houses in these fields constructed of masonry, but there are a great many huts made with wood and reeds.

French omnibusses pass through here daily between Algiers and Medea. What an instance of the march of intellect, and of these vehicles! No doubt few of the omnibuss "travellers" of London are aware that there are omnibusses running in Africa.

MEDEA

was formerly the residence of the Bey of Titterie; it possessed a barrack for the Turkish Militia, and still has a Casbah, and a very pretty palace.

Medea, is surrounded by a stone wall rather high, and about a mile in circumference, in which are five gates, two of which are to the north, and the three others south, east, and west. These are weakly defended by a few loop-holes, through which the defenders could fire upon the assailants. Above the south gate is a battery of two eight pound culverins of Spanish make, according to the arms upon them, one of which has, in addition, a figure of the Virgin and child.

The appearance of Medea greatly differs from that of Algiers, in the construction of its houses, which are all built of stone, and whitened with lime, but

the interiors are the same ; there is a ground floor, a first story, and gallery, supported by pillars.

The city possesses numerous fountains which are merely spouts projecting from walls, most of the shops are placed in one long, narrow street, where there is a very pretty, Moorish coffee-house, and a caravanserais, where a change of horses can be obtained, a convenience uncommon in Algeria.

Medea contains several mosques, in one of which a public school is established.

There is a remarkable aqueduct, which has been supposed to be the work of the Romans, but the minarets of the mosque are constructed in the same way, that is to say in stone and bricks of a peculiar composition, and the aqueduct, although ancient, is no doubt the work of the Africans.

The population of this city is not above six or seven thousands.

The environs are beautiful and covered with vineyards, orchards, and cultivated fields, showing the agricultural industry of the possessors. The inhabitants of Medea, are much more active than the Moors and Arabs, they are never unoccupied ; even in the coffee houses they knit a kind of sock for the feet, with iron needles very large and short ; many employ themselves in different mechanical occupations ; joiners, tanners, smiths &c., but their

principal and most important pursuit is agriculture.

Omnibusses run daily between this town and Algiers, passing through Bleeda ; the fare is ten francs.

That part of Mount Atlas between Bleeda and Medea which reaches as far as Mount Jurjurah, is inhabited by numerous clans of Kabyles. The Beni Sala and Haleel overlook Bleeda, and the rich plains of the Mettijiah, while the Beni Selim and Haleefa sometimes descend into the pasture ground, near the banks of the Bishbesh or " river of fennel," a great quantity of which grows upon the banks of it. Further to the eastward, a branch of the Megrowa live, within sight of the extensive plains of Hamza, opposite Sour Guslan, and beyond them are the Inshlowa and Bonganie, which have below them, to the southward, the fertile plains of the Castoolah noted for the feeding and breeding of cattle. Not far from the Castoolah, are the Kabyles of Mount Jurjurah, of which the Beni Alia are the principal on the north side, and the Beni Yala on the south.

Mount Jurjurah is described under the head of Mountains.

Returning again to the westward, there is, at five leagues distance to the south of Medea, the Titteric dosh, as the Turks call " the rock of Titterie," a remarkable ridge of precipices, four leagues in

length, and if possible more rugged than the Jurjurah. Upon the summit there is a large piece of level ground, with only one narrow road leading up to it, where the Welled Eisa have their granaries. Beyond the Welled Eisa, are the encampments of the Welled In-anne, the principal Arabs of the district of Titterie, which lies in the neighbourhood of this mountain.

Burg Hamza, or the Castle of Hamza is situated two leagues to the southward of the rich plains of that name, and five to the eastward of the rock of Titterie.

Before the French conquest, this castle had a garrison of one "*Suffrah,*" which was the name, among the Algerines, for a band of Turkish soldiers, consisting generally of twenty persons, including a cook, steward, and *oda bashaw* or lieutenant; so called from being such a number or mess, as could sit conveniently round one *(suffrah)* table. This was similar to the Contubernium of the Romans, though consisting of no more than ten persons who lived in one *(papilio)* pavilion or barrack, as these Turks lived under the same tent. The Decanus, who commanded the former, answers to the *oda bashaw* who cammanded the latter.

Burg Hamza is built out of the ruins of the ancient Auzia, called by the Arabs, Sour, or Sour Guslan, that is "the walls of the antilopes." A

considerable part of this ancient city, fortified at certain distances with small, square turrets, is still remaining, and seems to have been little more than three quarters of a mile in circumference.

Tacitus has very correctly described this place. "For Auzia was built upon a small piece of level ground, everywhere surrounded with craggy rocks and gloomy forests."

A few miles to the southward of Soar, commences Gaetulia: the first remarkable place in this direction is Jibbel Deera, where the river Jin-enne has its sources, which, after it has flowed about thirty miles through a dry, sandy soil, loses itself gradually in the Schott. Most of the Gaetulian Arabs, who dwell upon its banks, are Zwowiah, as they call the children and dependents of their Marabbutts, who, like those of the same denomination, in all the Mahometan dominions, enjoy very great privileges. The Welled Seedy Eesa, the most northern of these communities, have the cubbah or sepulchre of their tutelar saint five leagues from Soar: and there is near it, on one side a large rock, upon which Seedy Eesa was daily accustomed to offer up his devotions. On the other side is the Ain Kidran, or "fountain of tar," supposed to have been miraculously bestowed upon them by this their progenitor, which they constantly use instead of common tar in salving their camels, and for other purposes.

Six leagues further are the Welled Seedy Hadjeras, so called from another of these Marabbutts. Here the Jin-enne changes its name into that of the *Wed el Ham*, that is "the river of carnage," from the number of people that have been at different times drowned in fording it. A little higher are the descendants of Seedy Braham Aslemmy, who spread themselves to Hirmam, a Dashkrah in the way to Boosaadah, at which place the palm brings forth its fruit to perfection.

Jibbel Seilat lies about seven leagues to the westward of Seedy Braham, and twelve leagues further in the same direction are the *Theneate el Gannim* (sheep cliffs). These are situated opposite the Burg Swaary, and the Titterie dosh at thirteen leagues distance. A little way beyond the seven hills are the eminences and salt pits of Zaggos, after which are the Saary, and the Zeckar, two mountains, one twelve, the other five leagues to the southward of Zaggos. These with many other rugged and mountainous districts in the Sahara is what are called by Strabo, the mountainous country of the Gaetulians.

Six leagues to the east of the Zeckar, is Fythe el Bothmah : so called, perhaps, from the broad or open turpentine trees, that grow upon the spot. Seven leagues from this place to the north Thyte el Bo-tum, that is "the thick," or "shady turpentine

tree," as it is probably named in contradistinction to the others.

At Herba, a heap of ruins a little to the eastward of Fythe el Bothma, are the sources of Wed el Shai-er, or " the barley river," a considerable stream of this part of Gaetulia. Its course from Herba to the Dashkrah of Boofer-joone is ten leagues in a north, north-east direction. At a little distance from Booferjoone, below a ridge of hills, there are some ancient ruins called Gahara. Besides the palm, which grows in this parallel to perfection, Booferjoone is celebrated also for apricots, figs, and other fruit.

To the north of Booferjoone, the Wed el Shai-er, acquires the name of Mailah, from the saltness of its water: and passing afterwards to the east of Ain Difla, that is "the fountain of oleanders," it loses itself in the Shott. Over this fountain hangs the mountain Mai-herga, a celebrated haunt for serpents, leopards, and other wild animals.

Six leagues to the south of Fythe el Bothma, are Gumra and Amoura, two Dashkras, with their springs and fruit trees. Beyond them at a greater distance to the south west is the Ain Maithie: and then Deminidde which with the Dashkrahs of the Low-aate, nine leagues further to the west, are the most considerable villages of this part of Gaetulia. They have also in all these places large plantations of palms and other fruit trees.

The numerous families of Maithie, Noile, and Melleeke, with their several subdivisions and dependents, range all over this country, from the Burg Swaary and the river Jin-enne to the Dashkrahs, of the Low-aate and Ammer, who spread themselves over a mountainous district, a great way to the west: the same probably with the Mous Phruraesus of the old geographers.

The villages of the Beni Mezzab, are situated thirty five leagues to the south of the Low-aate and Ammer, which, having no rivulets, are supplied entirely from wells. Gardeiah the capital, is the furthest to the west. Bery-gan, the next considerable Dashkrah, is nine leagues to the east, and Grarah the nearest of them to Wurglah, is similarly situated in distance and situation with respect to Bery-gan.

The Beni Mezzab notwithstanding they never paid any tribute to the Algerines, and, being of the sect of the Melaki, are not permitted to enter their mosques, yet they have been, from time immemorial the only persons who are employed in their slaughter houses, and who have furnished their shambles with provisions. It may be further observed of these sons of Mezzab that they are generally of a more swarthy complexion, than the Gaetulians to the northward: and as they are separated from them by a wide, inhospitable desert, without the least traces of dwell-

ings, or even the footsteps of any living creature, they may be in all probability, as it is elsewhere observed, the most western branch of the Melano-gaetuli.

THE PROVINCE OF CONSTANTINA.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SEA COAST.

THIS Province, which lies between the meridians of the rivers Booberak, and Zaine, is nearly equal to the other two in extent, being upwards of two hundred and thirty miles in length, and more than one hundred in breadth.

The sea coast from Booberak, nearly to Bone, is rocky and mountainous, answering to the title of El-Adwah "the high or lofty" as Abulfeda has called it.

At a league's distance from the mouth of the Booberak, and forty five miles east of Algiers, is Dellys, the ancient Rusucurium, out of whose ruins the town was built.

Passing by the port of the Zuffoone, commonly called Mers-el-Fahm, or the port of charcoal, and doubling cape Ash-oune-mon-kar, where stood the ancient Vabar, the next remarkable place is the Mettse-coub, or perforated rock. The Spaniards have a tradition that Raymond Lully, in his mission

to Africa, was in the habit of retiring to this cave for meditation.

At a small distance from the perforated rock, is the port of Bougie, called by Strabo, the port of Salda, which is much larger than that of Oran or Arzew. It is formed in the same manner by a neck of land, that runs out into the sea, a great part of which was formerly faced with hewn stone, over which also an aqueduct was conducted for the greater convenience of supplying the port with water. But all have since been destroyed, and the only thing remarkable is the tomb of one of their tutelar saints.

Bougie is built upon the ruins of a large city in the same manner, and similarly situated among the mountains as Dellys, though of three times the extent. It possesses an excellent road for shipping, and was bombarded by Sir Edward Spragg in 1671.

The Adouse, a large river runs a little to the eastward of Bougie. It is of very great extent, and excepting the plains of Hamza and Seteef, the whole country which is watered by several branches of it, is very rocky and mountainous, and so occasions such a number and variety of torrents, particularly in the winter season, that infinite losses and calamities are daily sustained by the inhabitants.

The Mansoureah or Sisaris, another large river at a small distance from the Nasava, separates the districts of the Beni Isah, and the Beni Maad.

The nick-name of Sheddy "the monkey," which was given by the Beni Maak to the Shiek or chief of the Beni Isah, about three centuries ago, occasioned a bloody and irreconcilable animosity, which continued until very lately.

Jigell, or as the French write it Djigelli, the Jgilgili of the ancients, lies a little beyond the cape that forms the eastern boundary of the gulf of Bougie. There is nothing left of the ancient city, except a few miserable houses and a small fort.

The *Wed el Kibbeer*, that is, the great river, the *Ampsaga* of the ancients, falls into the sea, ten leagues to the east of Jigel; beyond it are the Sebba Rous, or Seven Capes, where the Sinus Numidicus may be supposed to begin, and where also the river Zhoorá has its influx.

The Welled Attyah, and the Beni Friganah, two principal clans of the Sebba Rous, use the water of this river. They live unlike other Kabyles in caves, which they scoop in the rocks, or find ready made to their hands. Whenever a vessel, either in the course of sailing, or by distress of weather, approaches their coast, these people, emerging from their holes, run in crowds to the shore, where they offer up numerous *prayers to God!* that he will deliver it into their hands.

As these wreckers are not Christians, I suppose

they are, unlike the Cornish clergyman and his congregation on a similar occasion, and never think of "starting fair."

Cull, the Cullu of the ancients, and written Collo by the French, is very picturesquely situated under the easternmost of the Seven Capes. It is in the same miserable condition as Jigel, and with as few antiquities. The small harbour that lies before it, is similar, though more capacious, than at Dellys. Here the river Ze-mah has its influx.

The coast opposite Cull is said to abound in coral, but the ferocity of the neighbouring tribes, prevents the fishing vessels from sheltering there.

Stora, the ancient Rusicada, is of a greater extent than Cull, and discovers greater signs of antiquity. It is eight leagues from the latter place.

In the gulf of Stora is Phillippeville, founded by the French, upon the site of an ancient Roman city, and named by them after his present Majesty, Louis Phillippe. The neighbouring country is well cultivated.

To the east of Phillippeville is the small port of Gavetta, and then, after doubling Ras-hadeed, "the Cape of Iron," four leagues further, which is the eastern boundary of the Sinus Numidicus, is the island of Tackush with a village of the same name situated opposite, upon the continent. Beyond this island and village, is Cape Hamrah, or "the Red

Promontory," the Hippi Promontorium of the ancients. Beyond this Cape is Port Genoese, after which is Bona.

Bona, written by the French Bone, is called by the Moors, Blaid el Aneb, or " the town of Jujebs," from the quantity of that fruit which is gathered in the neighbourhood.

Bona is supposed to be a corruption of Hippo or Hippona, although the ruins of that city are not here, where the name is preserved, but a mile further to the south. Leo informs us, that Blaid-el-Aneb was built out of these ruins of Hippona.

Between the latter, and Bona, there is a low, marshy plain, which appears to be an acquisition from the sea. The river Boojemah runs along the western side of this marsh, as the Seibouse, a much larger river, does to the eastward : both of them have their influx in the sea, and are very subject to inundations, when they bring along with them a great many roots, and trunks of trees, which, remaining upon the neighbouring shore, may have first occasioned this addition of land to the continent.

The ruins of Hippona are spread over the neck of land that lies between these ruins, which near the banks is plain and level, but rises afterwards to a moderate elevation. They are about half a league in circuit, consisting of large, broken walls and cisterns, some of which are shown by the Moors, who have an interest in keeping up such a profitable

tradition, for the convent of Saint Austin. This city was formerly one of the royal cities of the Numidian Kings. It enjoys a good air and is beautifully situated.

The Seibouse and Mafragg, the principal rivers between Bona and Tabraca, seem to be the Armua and Rubricatus of the ancients.

Beyond Cape Rosa, five leagues from the Mafragg is the "*Bastion,*" where there is a small creek and the ruins of a fort that gave rise to the name. The factory of the French African company had formerly their settlement at this place, but the unwholesomeness of the situation, occasioned by the neighbouring ponds, and marshes, obliged them to remove to *La Calle,* another inlet, three leagues further to the east.

About two miles to the east of *Calle* is the little river Zaine, the ancient Tusca, and which has served for centuries as the limit of the two regencies of Algiers and Tunis.

There is a small island at the mouth of the Zaine, which was in possession of a noble Genoese family from the time of Andrea Doria, to whom the Tunissians gave it, with the solemn consent of the Grand Seignior, in ransom for one of their princes, whom Andrea had taken captive. This place, defended by a small castle, was well armed and in good order, and protected the coral fishery which was carried on in those seas. But in 1740, the

King of Tunis took it by treachery from the Genoese, put some of them to the sword, and the rest, to the number of three or four hundred, he carried into captivity.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE INLAND PLACES.

The whole of this province, which lies between the meridians of the rivers Booberak and Zhore, from the sea coast to the parallels of Seteef and Constantine, is mostly a continued chain of exceedingly high mountains: near the above parallels it is diversified with a beautiful variety of hills and plains, which afterwards grow less fit for cultivation, till it ends upon the Sahara, in a long range of mountains, the Buzara probably of the ancients. The district of Zaab lies immediately under these mountains; and beyond Zaab, at a great distance in the Sahara, is Wadreag, another collection of villages. This part of the eastern province, including the parellel of Zaab, answers to the Mauritania Sitifensis, or the first Mauritania, as it was called in the middle age.

The mountainous country between the meridians of the rivers Zhoore and Seibouse, is of no considerable extent, seldom extending more than six leagues within the continent. From the Seibouse to the Zaine, except in the neighbourhood of Ta-barca, where it begins again to be very mountainous, the

country is mostly upon a level, though sometimes diversified with hills and forests, the same variations are met with below Tuckush, along the encampments of the Hareishah, Grarah, and other Bedoweens, as far as Constantina, where are sometimes seen a small species of red deer, which are rarely, if ever, met with in other parts of the kingdom. Beyond this parallel is a range of high mountains, the Thambes of Ptolemy, extending themselves as far as Tabarca, behind which, there is pasture and arable ground, ending in the Sahara, as the Mauritania Sitifensis did before, in a ridge of mountains, the Mampsarus probably of the ancients. Part of the Africa Proper of Mela, and Ptolemy, the Numidia Massylorum, the Metagonitis Terra &c., was comprehended in this part of the province.

A few leagues to the south east of Mount Jurjurah, among the mountains of the Beni Abbess, there is a narrow, winding valley, extending above half a mile, under two opposite ranges of exceedingly high precipices. At every winding, the rocky stratum that originally went across it and so separated one part of this valley from another, is hewn down, like so many door ways, each of them six or seven feet wide. The Arabs call them the Beeban, or Gates, but the Turks, in consideration of their strength and ruggedness, give them the additional name of Dammer Cappy, that is the Gates of Iron. A handful of men would be able to dispute this

passage with a whole army. A rivulet of salt water, which runs through this valley, might first point out the way, which art and necessity would afterwards improve.

Two leagues to the south, south east, of the Beeban, is the Accaba, or ascent, another dangerous pass, the very reverse of the Beeban, for here, as with the celebrated Mount Cenis in Italy, the road lies upon the narrow ridge of a high mountain, with deep valleys and precipices on each side, where the least deviation from the beaten path exposes the traveller to almost inevitable destruction. Yet, notwithstanding all these difficulties, the public road from Algiers to Constantina lies over this ridge, and through the Beeban; being preferred to another a little on the right hand, by being wider, and to Wannougah, in being more direct.

Mount Atlas, which all through the province of Tittery, as far as mount Jurjurah, ran nearly in a parallelism with the sea coast, begins thence to incline to the south east. In the same direction also are the high mountains of Wannougah and J-aite: which are succeeded afterwards, though more in a parallelism with the sea coast, by those of the Welled Selim, Mustewah, Auress, and Tipasa, which run into the Regency of Tunis.

Three or four leagues to the southward of mount J-aite, is Messeelah, the frontier town of this province to the westward. It is built upon the southern

skirts of the plains of El-Huthna, nine leagues to the south, south west, of Seedy Embarak Es-mati, and sixteen to the south west of Seteef. It is a dirty place like the other villages in this country, having its houses built, either with reeds daubed over with mud, or else with tiles baked in the sun. The air is too cold at this, as well as at other places upon the skirts of the Sahara for the production of dates: and therefore the gardens that surround it are only furnished with peach, apricot, and such fruit trees, as are common to the more northern parts of Algeria. Mes-seelah signifies a situation like this, which borders upon a running stream.

At the same distance on the other, that is, the north side of Jibbel J-aite, commence the plains of Ma-jana, shaded to the northward by the Dra el Ham-mar, and to the west by the mountains of Wannougah. These plains are both extensive and fertile, but the numerous pools of stagnant water, as the name imports, that are left here in the rainy season, and corrupt afterwards in the spring, occasion a variety of agues, and other distempers common to places similarly situated. There are several heaps of ruins dispersed all over these plains: out of which the Turks built a fort.

There is nothing further remarkable, till passing by the village Zammora that is "of Olive trees," we come to Seteef, the ancient Sitipha or Sitifi, the metropolis of this part of Mauritania: which is re-

corded in history to have made an obstinate resistance against the Saracens. This city, which was perhaps a league in circumference, was built upon a rising ground facing the south.

There is now scarcely a fragment left, either of the ancient walls, pillars, or cisterns of the Romans: the few remaining structures being, obviously, the work of the later inhabitants. The fountains which continue to flow very plentifully near the centre of the city, are equally convenient and delightful.

The plains and rich pastures of Cassir Attyre, lie a little to the southward of Seteef. They are cultivated by the Raigah, a clan of Arabs famous for breeding cattle, particularly horses, which are reckoned the best in this country.

Near the Raigah are the Ammer, who are a powerful tribe.

Eight leagues to the south-east of Seteef, are the ruins of Taggah and Zainah, situated at half a league's distance from each other, in a fruitful and champaign country, below Jibbel Mustewah, the chief abode of the Welled Abdenore, a very numerous and powerful clan. Taggah and Zainah are rarely mentioned apart, but from their contiguity are jointly called Tagou-Zainah. A small brook runs between them, and at Zainah, there are, among other ruins, the remains of a triumphal arch, supported by two large Corinthian pillars.

Five leagues to the east of Tagou-Zainah, upon

the northern skirts of Jibbel Auress, is a very remarkable sepulchral monument called Medrashem, or Mail Casham, that is, the treasure of Cashem ; it is very similar to the Kubber Romeah, but differs in being larger, and in having the cornice of the base supported by pilasters nearly similar to the Tuscan. The Arabs imagine that an immense treasure lies buried underneath it, and have, therefore, made the same attempts as at Kubbah Romeah, to open it.

The district in the neighbourhood of this mausoleum is called Ai-yac-coute ; probably from the Ain-yac-coute, or diamond (that is, transparent,) fountain that flows near the middle of it. Several fragments of Roman highways and other ruins, are scattered all over it, among which, the principal are those of Om-oley, Sinaab, a league or more to the westward of Medrashem, in the way to Tagou-Zainah.

Tattubt, bordering upon the Ai-yac-coute to the north-east, is about four leagues from Om-oley Sinaab, and eight to the south, south-west of Constantina. This has been, formerly, a considerable city, but at present it is almost entirely covered with earth and rubbish. Tattubt seems to be the same with the Tadutti of the Itinerary, and lying between Lambese and Gemellae, as the ancients called Tezzoute and Jim-meelah, may lay claim to this situation.

Ten leagues to the south of Tagou-Zainah, and

twelve from Medrashem, are the ruins of the ancient Thubuna, as the present name Tubuah seems to imply, and as Ptolemy's position of it, in the same meridian nearly with Jgilgili, may further confirm. It is situated in a fine plain between the rivers Bareekah and Boomazoose ; but the few remains of it are so much buried in sand and rubbish, that it would be difficult to determine its former extent.

Seven leagues to the south, south-west of Tubnah, and sixteen to the south-east of Messeelah, is Em-dou-khal, a small village surrounded by mountains. Here the first plantation of Date Trees is met with, though the fruit does not ripen with such delicacy and sweetness as in the province of Zaab, which commences a short distance beyond.

The Shott is a large valley or plain, that runs, with few interruptions, between two chains of mountains, from the neighbourhood of Em-dou-khal, to the westward of the meridian of Messeelah. The word commonly signifies " the sea-shore," or " the banks" of some lake or river ; but the meaning here, is slightly varied, and denotes " the borders," or " area" rather of such a plain, as, according to the seasons of the year, is either covered with salt, or overflowed with water. Several parts of the Shott consist of a light, oozy soil, which, after sudden rains, or the overflowing of the adjacent rivers, is changed into so many quicksands, which are exceedingly dangerous to the traveller.

Crossing the Boo-ma-zoose, opposite Tubnah, is a large mountain of excellent freestone. It is called Muckat el Hadjar, that is, "the Quarry," and the Arabs have a tradition that the stones employed in building Seteef (and without doubt other neighbouring cities) were brought from this place.

Four leagues to the northward of this quarry, is Boo-muggar, a fruitful little district with some traces of ancient buildings. Between it and Ras el Aioune, is the village of Nic-kowse or Ben-cowse, as it is called by the Turks. The inhabitants are chiefly Zwowiah. It is situated in a valley, with a circle of mountains at a moderate distance from it. A rivulet runs by it to the west, but being impregnated with nitrous particles, with which the soil abounds, the water is seldom used for drinking.

Here are the traces of a large city, with the remains, as usual, of pillars, broken walls, and cisterns.

The inhabitants pretend to show the tombs of the seven sleepers, whom they strenuously maintain to have been Mahometans, and to have slept at this place, contrary to the common opinion, viz., that they pretended to have slept in a cavern in Mount Ochlon, near the city of Ephesus, from A.D. 258, to 408.

The powerful clans of the Lakhder, Cossoure, and Hirkawse, inhabit the mountainous district to the eastward of Tubnah and Nic-kowse, as far as Jibbel Auress. This the Mons Aurasius of the middle age,

and the Mons Audus of Ptolemy, is not one single mountain, but a large knot of eminences running one into another with several beautiful little plains and valleys intervening. However, both the higher and lower parts of it are mostly of the utmost fertility, and still continue to be the garden of this province. The whole mountainous tract may be one hundred and twenty miles in circuit. The northern part is possessed by numerous clans, viz., the Boozeenah, Lashash, Maifah, and Booaref. The same rugged situation to the southward is so well fortified by nature, and peopled by such a courageous race, that they were never subdued by the Turks. A high, pointed, impenetrable rock, the seat of their Dashkrah, seems to be the Petra Geminiani, or the Tumar of Procopius, answering to all the circumstances of those places as they are recorded by that historian.

There are a number of ruins spread all over these mountains, and their fruitful valleys, the most remarkable of which are those of L'erba or Tezzouze, three leagues nearly in circumference, where there are a great variety of antiquities. Besides the magnificent remains of several of the city gates, which, according to the tradition of the Arabs, were forty altogether, and that when the place was in prosperity, it could send out of each of them forty thousand armed men, there are the seats and upper part of an amphitheatre ; the front of a beautiful

Ionic Temple, dedicated to Esculapius; a spacious, oblong chamber, with a large gate on each side of it, and the Cubbel Ar-rosah, or "the Cupola of the Bride," as the Arabs call a little beautiful mausoleum with Corinthian pillars.

These and several other edifices of a similar, elegant construction, sufficiently demonstrate the importance and magnificence of this city, which alone, without the authority of inscriptions, might be a presumptive argument for what has been already suggested that Tezzoute, or L'erba, was the Lambese or Lambasa, of the ancients. The particular notice that is taken of Lambese in the Itinerary, should induce us to suppose it to have been the most considerable city of that part of the country where it was situated, and the respective distances and directions laid down by the same author in conducting us there, point out to us the situation of it in general, viz., that it made, with Theveste and Sitifi, an irregular triangle, the height of which was to be determined by the distance of Cirta.

The Kabyles of these mountains of Auress are quite different in appearance to their neighbours. For their complexions are so far from being swarthy, that they are fair and ruddy; and their hair, which among the other Kabyles, is of a dark color, with them is of a deep yellow. These circumstances, notwithstanding they are Mahometans, and speak the common language of the Kabyles,

may induce us to take them, if not for the tribe mentioned by Procopius, yet at least for some remnant or other of the Vandals, who, notwithstanding they were dispossessed in his time of these strongholds, and dispersed among the African families, might have had several opportunities afterwards of collecting themselves into bodies, and re-instating themselves.

Between Jibbel Auress, and Constantina is the high mountain of Ziganeah, at the foot of which is Physgeah, formerly a city of the Romans, where there is a plentiful fountain and reservoir, according to the import of the name, the water of which was formerly conducted by an aqueduct to Constantina.

CONSTANTINA.

This city, the capital of the province of that name, was called by the ancients Cirta or Cirta Sittianorum. It is situated beyond the Little Atlas forty eight miles from the sea.

We learn from history, that it was one of the principal and strongest cities of Numidia: the first of which circumstances, is confirmed by the extent of the ruins; the latter by its particular situation, for the greatest part of it has been built upon a high peninsular promontory, inaccessible on all sides, except towards the south-west, where it is joined to the continent. This promontory is about a mile in

circumference, rather inclined to the southward ; but to the northward it ends in a perpendicular precipice of at least six hundred feet : whence there is a beautiful landscape, over a great variety of vales, mountains and rivers which extend to a great distance before it. To the eastward, the prospect is bounded by an adjacent range of rocks, much higher than the city ; but towards the south-east, the country is more open, with a distant view of the mountains of Seedy Rougeise and Ziganeah. And in these directions this peninsular promontory is separated from the continent, by a deep, narrow valley, perpendicular on both sides, where the Rummel or Ampsaga conveys its stream.

Upon the most elevated point of the city, at the northern angle, is the Casbah, an ancient edifice, which now serves for a French barrack. This citadel commands Constantina. Below it are corn mills turned by the waters of the Rummel, and there are numerous gardens upon the banks of this river, in the quarter called El-Hamma.

The streets of Constantina are paved but narrow and circuitous, while they are almost all steep. The houses are generally two stories high ; the most beautiful, having been built with the ruins of the Roman edifices, contrast greatly with the simplicity of the modern habitations. The "Street of the Jews," is remarkable for its singular appearance, being overhung with vines richly laden with fruit,

and affording an agreeable shade. At one extremity is a minaret, its crescent glittering in the clear sunny sky. Here reigns a pleasing calm, unknown in European cities. The appearance of the buildings, the gravity of costume, the imposing step, the physiognomy of the Moors and Arabs in the silent shops, presents a scene novel and pleasing.

The ancient Palace of the Bey is a remarkable monument. In order to decorate it, Ahmed Bey, before the French conquest, caused to be taked from the most beautiful houses in the city, a variety of columns and other ornaments, which had been originally brought from the ancient ruins of Bone, and Tunis, consequently Constantina possesses a great many valuable relics, and is particularly interesting to the antiquary.

The principal gate, of four, belonging to the city, is on a neck of land to the south west, about half a furlong broad. It is entirely covered with broken walls, cisterns, and other ruins, which are continued quite down to the river, and carried on thence, over a strip of plain ground that runs parallel with the deep, narrow valley already described. Such was the situation and extent of the ancient Cirta, but the present city has not the same dimensions being confined to the penisular promontory only.

Besides the general traces of a diversity of ruins scattered all over this place, there are still remaining, near the centre of the city, those capacious cisterns

which received the water, brought there from Physgeah by an aqueduct: a great part of which still remains, and is very sumptuous. The cisterns, which are about twenty in number, make an area of fifty square yards. The gate before mentioned is of a beautiful, reddish stone, not inferior to marble, well polished and shining; the side posts, or pillars are neatly moulded in panels. An altar of pure white marble, makes part of a neighbouring wall, and the side of it in view presents a well shaped simpulum in a bold relief. The gate towards the south east is in the same style and design, though much smaller, and lies open to a bridge that was built over this part of the valley. This was a masterpiece in its kind; the gallery and the columns of the arches being adorned with cornices and festoons, ox-heads, and garlands. The key-stones also of the arches are charged with caducei and other figures. Below the gallery, between the two principal arches, we see, in a bold relief, and well executed, the figure of a lady over two elephants, with a large scallop shell for her canopy. The elephants facing each other, twist their trunks together: and the lady, with her hair curled in ringlets, is dressed in a close bodied garment, something like a riding habit of the present day, raises up her petticoat with one hand, and looks scornfully upon the city. This group, in any other situation, might well be supposed to have belonged to some fountain, as fountains or

spouts of water were sometimes laid out with designs equally indelicate.

Constantina possesses at present thirteen principal mosques, besides a great many inferior places of worship.

The inhabitants are industrious; there are among them a great many tradesmen, and artisans. Sadlery and shoemaking, occupy a great many, but the principal riches of the country arise from the cultivation of the land in the surrounding plains. Horned cattle and sheep are very numerous, and from the wool of the latter the natives fabricate a coarse cloth which meets with a quick sale. The women, beside their domestic work, spin and weave *burnooses.*

The climate of the country, and of the city in particular is very healthy, but rather cold on account of its elevated position. But in the neighbouring plains, there is, on the contrary, a high temperature during the greatest part of the year.

Ruined in 311, in the war of Maxentius against Alexander, a Panonian peasant, who had procured himself to be proclaimed Emperor in Africa, re-established and embellished, under Constantina, it took the name of its restorer, instead of its ancient one of Cirta.

The population of this city is composed of Moors, Turks, Kabyles, and Jews. The inhabitants reckoned the population at forty thousand, anterior to the

French conquest, but this statement wants proofs to support it. The Kabyles generally compose half the total population, the Moors a quarter, and the rest is composed of Jews, Turks, and other races.

Constantina, fortified as it is by nature, and by the regular works which could be established upon its precipitous front, would defy the most powerful force.

Below the bridge the Rummel turns to the northward, where it runs nearly a quarter of a mile through a rocky, subterraneous passage, designedly laid open in several places, for the greater convenience of drawing water and cleansing the channel, were it not for the outlet afforded by this natural passage, the river would form a most extensive lake, and lay a great part of the neighbouring country under water, before it could find its way to the sea.

Among the ruins to the south-west of the bridge upon the narrow strip of land before described, is the principal part of a triumphal arch, called Cassir Goulah, that is, "the Castle of the Giant," consisting of three arches of which the middle one is as usual the most spacious. All the mouldings and friezes are curiously embellished with the figures of flowers, battle-axes, and other ornaments. The Corinthian pilasters erected on each side of the grand arch are panelled like the gates of the City, in a style peculiar to Cirta.

A quarter of a mile to the eastward of Seedy Meemon, the Rummel falls from its subterraneous channel in a large cascade. The highest part of the city, with the magnificent portico already taken notice of, lies above it; whence, until lately, criminals were precipitated into the river, as they used to be in former times. A short distance beyond the cascade, is Kabat-beer-a-haal, as they call a neat transparent fountain, full of tortoises. Several strange stories of their being demons, and the authors of fevers and other distempers, have been related of these animals by Leo and other historians.

As the flesh of the water tortoise is particularly unwholesome, the eating it is very likely to produce "fevers and other distempers," and this, no doubt, has led the superstitious, ancient historians into the error of supposing that the tortoise caused these evils by their demoniacal powers.

Five leagues to the north of Constantina, is the city of Meelah, the Milevum, or Mileu of the ancients, built in the centre of beautiful valleys and mountains. It is surrounded with gardens, and plentifully stocked with fountains, one of which, bubbling up in the centre of the city, is immediately received into a large, square basin of Roman workmanship. Constantina is supplied chiefly from this place with herbs and fruit; the pomegranates parti-

cularly are of so large a size, and possess such a delicate mixture, being both acid and sweet, that they are greatly esteemed all over Algeria. Leo and Marmol speak of the excellence of the apples, and have, in consequence, derived the name of the city from that fruit.

In travelling from Constantina to the eastward, we pass by Alleegah and Announah, at each of which places there are considerable heaps of ruins. After these we come to Hamam Meskouteen, that is "the silent, or enchanted baths," situated on low ground surrounded with mountains. There are several fountains that furnish the water, which is of an intense heat, and falls afterwards into the river Zenati. At a short distance from these hot fountains, there are others which, upon comparison, are of as intense a coldness; and a little below them, nearer the banks of the Zenati, there are ruins of a few houses, built, perhaps, for the convenience of persons using the water. All this country, from Constantina to the Zenati, is a fruitful interchange of hills and and valleys, some of which are beautifully diversified with forests and plantations of olive trees.

The district of the Bookawau, with the Hamam or Baths upon it, lies to the eastward of the Hamam Meskouteen, on the north side of the River Seibouse. On the other side is the district of Mownah, the possession of the Beni Sala, a warlike tribe, with the ruins of Gelma, or Kalma, as the Turks pro-

nounce it. This, undoubtedly, is the Calama so much wanted in the old geography.

Behind Mownah is Tiffesh, the Theveste, Thebes, Thebæ, or Thebestis, of the ancients. This is the only city in the district of the Hen-neisha which has preserved its old name, though at the same time, it could not secure its walls from the devastations of the Arabs. It has been situated, like the rest, in a fine plain, with a small rivulet running by it, and lies about nineteen leagues to the east south-east of Constantina.

In the neighbourhood of Tiffesh is the country of the Hen-neishah, who are not only a powerful and warlike, but a graceful and pleasing tribe. About a century ago, Ali Bashaw, Dey of Algiers, murdered his son-in-law, the chief of this tribe, and what is more extraordinary, but a positive fact, he afterwards caused the body to be given to his drunken Janizaries, to be made into "Cabab" and eaten, which was, accordingly, done with great festivity and rejoicing.

This district, the most fruitful, as well as the most extensive of Numidia, lies between the rivers Hameese and Myski-anah, the latter the most southern, the first the most northern branch of the Me-jer-dah; there is scarcely an acre of it but what is watered by some fountain or rivulet; and there are few of these but what have had some city or village built either upon or in the neighbourhood of them,

which are now so much destroyed, that a heap of rubbish, without either name or inscription, is all that remains.

> " Behold the wrecks of grandeur in those plains,
> Where thron'd in ruins, desolation reigns!
> Once proudest cities crown'd this blooming coast,"—
> Where are they now?—Their very name is lost.

To the southward of the Henneishah, near the banks of the Melagge, is Tipsa, Tibessa, the Tipasa of the ancients, at present a frontier city; this place which enjoys a fine situation with some mountains at a short distance, still preserves the principal gate, several fragments of old walls, and other marks of the rank and importance it formerly obtained among the cities of Numidia. There is a large subterraneous quarry in the adjacent mountains: the same place perhaps that Leo was informed had been formerly inhabited by giants.

The river Mellagge runs a little to the northward of Tipasa, being a continuation of the Myskianah, which has its sources at Ain Thyllah in the western confines of the Henneishah. A little further the Melagge, still directing its course te the north-east, assumes the name of Serrat, and forms part of tha eastern boundary of Algeria. This, when joined at a little distance the Sugerass, which comes from Millah, by Hameese, and Tiffesh, to the westward, assumes the

name of Mejerda, the ancient Bagradas, which will be further noticed in another place.

Near the western banks of the Serrat, ten leagues from Tiffesh, is Collah Gellah, or Gellah ad Snaan, a considerable village, built upon a high pointed mountain, with only one narrow road leading up to it. This place, which could only be reduced by famine, or taken by surprise, was formerly a convenient sanctuary for the rebels and criminals both of Algiers, and the neighbouring regency of Tunis.

That part of the Sahara, which lies behind the province, has, exclusive of the distant city of Wurglah, and the village Engousah, the two considerable districts of Zaab, and Wadreag; with their respective numerous villages. These, a collection of dirty hovels, are all built in the same manner, with mud walls, and rafters of palm trees. And as the inhabitants also are all of them similarly occupied in cultivating the date tree, few of them will require a particular description.

The district then of Zaab, the Zebe or Zabe of the ancients (once a part of the Mauritania Sitifensis, as it was always of Gaetula) is a narrow tract of land lying immediately under the mountains of the great Atlas, and has its villages with few intermissions or vacant spaces between them, reaching from the meridian of Mes-seelah, to that of Constantina. Of these Dousan, Toodah, Seedy Occ'ba, Biscara and

Oumilhennah receive their rivulets from the Tell ; but the fountains and rivulets which contribute to the others, rise within the Sahara, or else they ooze immediately from the southern and adjacent skirts of Mount Atlas. The Wed-Adje-dee, or Jid-dee, that is "the River of the Kid," receives these several streams, and running afterwards towards the south-east, loses itself in the Mel-gig, an extensive tract of the Sahara, of the same saline and absorbent quality as the Shott, which has been already described. This river should be the Garrar, or Jirad of Abulfeda ; and as there is no other principal stream on this side the Niger, it may be the same also with Ptolemy's Gir, though placed by him among the Garamantes, who, according to all the geographical circumstances relating to them, must have been situated a great way further to the east or south-east.

Biscara, the capital of Zaab, was formerly the residence of a Turkish garrison. There is a small castle here, built by a Bey of Constantina. It's chief strength and defence is six small pieces of cannon, mounted upon carriages. This city, which is surrounded by a brick wall, carries on a considerable commerce in slaves and other productions of Nigritia. A considerable number of its inhabitants emigrate to Algiers.

The village of Seedy Occuba, or Occ'ba as the

Arabs contract it, is celebrated for the tomb of the Arabian general of that name, and for that of its tutelar saint. It is a common report that the tower adjoining the sanctuary of Seedy Occ'ba will very sensibly tremble upon calling out—" *TIZZA bil ras Seedy Occ'ba,*" that is " shake for the head of Seedy Occubar." An effect something like this is produced in a tower at Rheims in France, and with the same exactness in its frame or equilibrium, by ringing one of the bells ; the constituent parts of the fabric, being perhaps so particularly and harmoniously put together, as to act in concert and at unisons with such sounds.

The Roman masonry may be traced out all over this province ; and at Banteuse, one of the southern villages, several stone coffins have been dug up at different times. It is much to the credit of the Romans, to find how careful they have been, where these rivulets ran through a loose and oosy soil, to support their banks with walls of hewn stone, and to pave their beds with pebbles.

The eating the flesh of dogs, for which the Carthaginians were remarkable, and whence the Canarü might more likely receive their name than from their feeding promiscuously with dogs upon the carcasses of wild beasts, according to Pliny, continues in practice to this day among the inhabitants of Zaab.

Wad-reag is another collection of villages like those of Zaab. They are reckoned to be twenty five in number, ranged in a north east, and south west direction, the capital of which is Tuggurt, built upon a plain, without any river running by it. The villages of Wad-reag, are supplied in a particular manner with water. They have, properly speaking, neither fountains or rivulets, but by digging wells to the depth of six hundred or sometimes twelve hundred feet, they never want a plentiful stream. In order therefore to obtain it, they dig through several layers of sand, and gravel, till they come to a flaky stone like slate, which is known to lay immediately above the Bahar tâht el Erd, or "the sea below the ground," as they call the abyss. This is easily broken through; and the flow of water which follows the stroke, rises generally so suddenly, and in such quantity, that the person let down for this purpose, has been sometimes overtaken and suffocated by it, before they could raise him to the top. This is a situation adapted for an Artesian well, what a saving of labour and human life would the admirable invention of boreing for water save here.

Thirty leagues to the south-west of Tuggurt is Engousah, the only village of several in this situation, which existed in the time of Leo. After Engousah, at five leagues distance to the westward, is

the noted and populous city of Wurglah, the most distant community on this side the Niger. These several cities and villages which, together with those of Figig and of Beni Mezzab, are very justly compared by the ancients to so many fruitful and verdant spots or islands in the vast expanse of a large desert, might formerly belong to, and make up the greatest part of the country of the Melanogaetulians. For after Gaetulia, Ptolemy reckons the nations that were situated beyond it, to the southward ; among which the Melanogaetuli and Garamantes were the principal. These nations certainly extended behind the greatest part of Algeria, Tunis, and Tripoli ; or from the meridian of Siga, near Tlemsan, to the Cyrenaica 35°. further to the east. And as inclusive of the Bedoween Arabs, there are no other nations in this direction besides the Figigians, the Beni Mezzab, the inhabitants of Wadreag and Wurglah to the west, and those of Gaddeniz, Fezzan, and Oujelah, to the east, it is very probable that the Melanogaetuli must have been the predecessors of these western Lybians, as the others to the east, were, for the same reason, the successors of the Garamantes.

The country of the Beni Mezzab is very fertile ; it has, besides, a considerable commerce with Gadamis, Bornou, Timbuctoo, and the whole of Soudan, it disposes of the products which it draws from

these countries to the inhabitants of Tunis and Tripoli.

THE PROVINCE OF ORAN.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE SEA COAST.

THIS province is about two hundred miles long. It is bounded on the east by the River Mazafran, and on the west by the Twunt and the mountains of Trara.

Leaving the Mazafran, and proceding to the west, is the Kubber Romeah, "the Sepulchre of the Christian women," called, by the Turks, from its shape, "Maltapasy," or the treasure of the sugar-loaf. It is situated upon the mountainous part of the sea coast, seven miles to the eastward of Tefessad. It is a solid and compact edifice, built with the finest free stone. The height is about one hundred feet, and the diameter nearly ninety. It is of a round shape rising with steps quite up to the top, like some of the Egyptian Pyramids. This structure, in consideration of the elegance of the workmanship, and the beauty of the materials, appears to be much older than the Mahometan conquests, and may, probably, be the monument that Mela places between Iol and Icosium, and appropriates to the Royal Family of the Numidian Kings.

The following is an Algérian Legend respecting

it. I have endeavoured to preserve in the translation, the eastern simplicity of the original :—

"In ancient times, in the country of the Hadjoutes, lived a rich man named Useph Ben Cassem, who was happy because he was of a contented disposition. He had a mild and beautiful wife, and his children were robust and obedient ; but being very valiant he went to the wars, and in spite of his bravery, he was taken by the Christians, who led him captive to their country, and sold him as a slave. Though his master treated him with kindness, his soul was sad when he thought upon what blessings he had lost. One day when he was employed in agriculture, feeling more than usually fatigued and overwhelmed with grief, having finished his daily task, he seated himself under a tree, and abandoned himself to despair, "Alas!" said he, "while I am cultivating my master's fields who is here to till mine ? What is become of my beloved wife and children ? Am I then condemned never to see them more, and to die in the country of the infidels ?" During these mournful reflections he saw approaching a sage, grave man, who, addressing him said—

"Arab, of what tribe art thou ?"

"I am an Hadjoute," replied Ben Cassem.

"In this case you know the Kubber Romeah ?"

"I did know it. Alas ! my home, where I have

left all the objects of my tenderness, is but one hour's walk from that monument."

"And wouldst thou be glad to see it again, and to return to the bosom of thy family ?"

"Canst thou ask me such a question ? But why remind me of what I have left, when thou hast it not in thy power to relieve my grief."

"I can relieve thy grief," replied the Christian, "I can open to thee the gate of freedom, and restore thee to the embraces of thy family ; for this, feelest thou disposed to grant me a favour in return ?"

"Speak, there is nothing that I will not do, to relieve myself and family from this my unfortunate lot ; request not that which will compromise my eternal salvation."

"Be not uneasy," said the Christian, "and judge. I am going to buy thee of thy master, and I shall furnish thee with the means to reach Algiers. When arrived at thy dwelling, thou canst pass three days with thy family, and on the fourth thou wilt go to Kubber Romeah ; there thou wilt make a fire at a few paces from the monument, and then thou wilt burn a paper which I will give thee ; there is nothing in this too difficult to accomplish ; swear to do what I ask of thee, and I will immediately restore thee to liberty."

Ben Cassem did what the Christian requested, who gave him a paper covered with magical charac-

ters. The same day he was restored to liberty, and his benefactor conducted him to a port where he embarked for Algiers. He only remained a few minutes in this city, he had so great a desire to see again his wife and children. Once more restored to his tribe, I leave you to judge of the joy of himself and family ; his friends gathered round him, to welcome his return, and during three days his dwelling was the rendezvous of visiters. On the fourth day he bethought himself of his promise to his benefactor, and went his way to Kubber Romeah ; there he lighted a fire and burned the mysterious paper, according to agreement. Scarcely had the devouring flame destroyed the last fragment, when, to his inexpressible surprise, he saw innumerable gold and silver coins issuing through the stones of the pyramid ; it resembled a hive of bees disturbed by a loud noise. All the pieces, after having turned around the monument, took the direction of the Christian Country with wonderful rapidity, forming a column of indefinite length, like a flight of starlings. Ben Cassem seeing all these riches passing over his head, began jumping as high as he could, and endeavoured to seize, with his hands, some trifling part. After having exhausted himself with vain endeavours, he began to think of taking off his burnoose and throwing it as high as he could ; this expedient succeeded, and he brought down some pieces of gold and silver ; but scarcely had they

touched the ground, than they all returned in order, and the openings whence they had issued closed.

Ben Cassem only told this to some particular friends; notwithstanding, this circumstance reached the ears of the Pacha, who sent some workmen to open Kubber Romeah, in order to make himself master of the enclosed riches. They set to work with great ardour, but the moment they commenced, a phantom in the form of a woman appeared at the top of the tomb, and cried out "Aloula, Aloula," (the name of a lake close by) "come to my assistance, come and remove the treasure;" immediately some enormous knats, as large as rats, came out of the lake, and by their excruciating stings, drove away the workmen. Since then, all attempts that have been made to open Kubber Romeah, have been fruitless, and the learned have declared that there is but one Christian who will have power over the enclosed riches."

Further to the west of Kubber Romeah are the ruins of Tfessad, supposed to be the Tipasa of the old geographers which extend themselves, for the space of two miles, along the sea-shore, though the breadth is not one-third part of their length. Beyond Tipasa is the Mers el Amouse, or Port of Amouse, very safe in Westerly winds, and to the west of this port is a pretty large cape called Ras-el-Amouse, and further on is, Shershell, the Joll, or

Julia Cæsarea, so celebrated in history. The Andalusian Moors, who were driven from Spain towards the end of the fifteenth century, built a town here, which was thrown down by an earthquake in 1738. The ruins of the ancient town are not inferior in extent to those of Carthage, while the remains of pillars, capitals, cisterns, &c., give a high opinion of its former magnificence.

The water of the river Hasham, according to its present name, was conducted to this town through a large and sumptuous aqueduct, little inferior to that of Carthage in the height and strength of its arches, several fragments of it, scattered among the neighbouring valleys to the south-east are so many incontestible proofs of the grandeur and beauty of the work. Besides these, there are two other smaller conduits, which continue perfect and entire, and plentifully supplying Shershell with excellent water, (for that of the wells is brackish) may be considered as two inestimable legacies of the ancients.

No city could be more admirably situated both as regards strength or beauty. A strong wall, forty feet high, supported with buttresses, and winding for a distance of nearly two miles through the several creeks of the seas-hore, secured it from all encroachments of the sea. The city, to the distance of a quarter of a mile from this wall lies upon a level, and afterwards, rising gradually for the space of a mile, to a considerable elevation, spreads itself

over a variety of hills and valleys, and loses entirely the prospect of the sea. One of the principal gates this way, is placed about a furlong below the summit of these hills, and leads to the rugged possessions of the Beni Menasser; and of the other two near the sea-shore, the western lies under the high mountains of the Beni Yifrah, and the eastern, under that of the Shenouah.

Shershell is thus shut up in the midst of mountains and narrow defiles, and all communication with it may be easily cut off.

They have a tradition that the ancient city was destroyed as the new one was, by an earthquake, and that the Port, formerly very large and commodious, was reduced to the miserable condition in which we find it at present, by the arsenal and other adjacent buildings being thrown into it by the shock. The Cothon which had a communication with the western part of the Port, is the best proof of this tradition. For when the sea is calm, and the water low, as it frequently happens after strong south or east winds, we then discover all over the area of it, so many massy pillars and pieces of great walls, that it is impossible to conceive how they could come there without such a concussion.

Not far distant, is a rill of water, received into a basin of Roman workmanship called "Shrub we krub," that is "drink and away," as there is great danger here of meeting with robbers and assassins.

To the west of Shershell are Bresk and Dahmus

formerly two Roman cities, further on, are several small islands, where there is good shelter for small vessels, and beyond these is the large promontory of Nakkos, the Promontorium Apollinis of Ptolemy, so called from a grotto that is formed below it in the shape of a bell. In advancing towards this Cape from the coast of Spain, it appears like the head of a wild boar.

Beyond Cape Nakkos is Tennis, written Tennez by the French ; it stands in a low, dirty situation, at a short distance from the sea. The anchoring ground, being too much exposed to the north and west winds, is the occasion of vessels being frequently cast away.

The Moors have a tradition that the Tennissians were formerly in such reputation for sorcery and witchcraft, that Pharaoh sent for the wisest of them to dispute miracles with Moses. It is certain that they are the greatest cheats of this country : and are as little to be trusted as their road.

Hammet Ben Useph, a neighbouring Marabbutt, wrote the following character of this place—

Tennis, - - - -	Tennis.
Mabaneah ali dennis -	Is built upon filth.
Mawah shem, - -	The soil of it is stinking.
Ma dim, - - -	The water of it is blood.
Wa howa sim, - -	And the air is poison.
Wa Hamet Ben Useph ma dukkul thime, - -	And Hamet Ben Useph would not go there.

Following the coast westward, and passing the

Jibbel Minis, a mountain of salt, and the Zour-el-Hamam, we arrive at the mouth of the large river Shelliff, the Chinalaph of the old geographers. It is the most celebrated, as well as one of the largest rivers of Algeria. The sources of it, which are seventy miles to the south-east, are called Sebbeine Ain, that is "the seventy fountains," and a little way to the northward is the Nahar (river) Wassal, the first tributary rivulet to the Shelliff. In stretching, afterwards, towards the north-east, it receives the Midroe, so called from a distant Gaetulian village, now in ruins. Tuckereah, the ancient Tigara, lies near the west banks of the Midroe. The Shelliff continuing still in the same direction, loses itself in the pond of Titterie (or Titterie Gewle, according to the Turkish name) and recovering itself afterwards, runs directly towards the sanctuary of Seedy Ben Tyba, a little below the city of Medea. Hence it runs all the way nearly in the same parallel with the sea coast, receiving all along several large contributions. The whole course of the Shelliff, from the Sebbeine Ain, to Jibbel Diss, that is "the mountain of Spartum," or "reedy grass," is little short of two hundred miles.

To the west of the Shelliff is Musty-gannim (written Mostaganim by the French) so called from the sweetness of the mutton that is fed in the neighbourhood. It is built in the form of an amphitheatre, with a full prospect of the sea, but in every other

direction it is closed up, by a circuit of hills, which over-hang it. The inhabitants have a tradition (and some vacant spaces seem to confirm it) that the present town is made up of several contiguous villages. In the middle of it, near one of these vacancies, are the remains of an old Moorish castle, erected, as appears from its construction, before the invention of fire-arms. The north west corner which over-looks the port, such an unsafe one as it is, is surrounded with a strong wall of hewn stone, where there is another castle built in a more regular manner. But Musty-gannim being too much exposed to every troop of Arabs, who have the courage to make themselves masters of the hills behind it, the principle strength and defence of it, lies in a citadel upon one of these eminences, and which has a full command of the city, and of the surrounding country.

The present population is about two thousand five hundred, exclusive of French soldiers.

Travelling through a beautiful country, which is sheltered by a chain of hills, which bounds it to the south, and south-east, we arrive at

MASAGRAN, a small, mud walled town, situated upon tha western declivity of a range of hills, and within a furlong of the sea. This is the place where a few years ago it was reported by the French government of Algeria, that one hundred and twenty-three French soldiers had successfully resisted seven thousand

Arabs for three days. This account, after employing the French scribes and sign painters for a great many months, and intoxicating the whole population of France with supposed glory—at length turned out to be a fabrication.

At a short distance beyond this place, is the river Sigg. The Habrah another considerable river falls into it, the mouth of which is called El-muckdah or "the ford" which except in the rainy season, is entirely absorded by the sand, leaving the passage without water. Not far from here, under some steep rocky cliffs, are two small ports, one of which opens towards Musty-gannim, the other, towards the port of Arzew which is situated five miles beyond.

Arzew is called, by the Moors, the port of the Beni Zeian, after the neighbouring Kabyles, who were formerly a considerable community. The country for some miles behind it consists of rich champaign ground ; but towards the sea there is a range of steep rocks, and precipices, which must have been always a natural safeguard to it in that direction. The water which the inhabitants use at present, lies lower than the sea, a circumstance which may account for the brackishness of it. However, the whole city was formerly built upon cisterns, several of which still remain, and serve the inhabitants to live in.

The numerous ruins of aqueducts, temples, (one temple, in particular, is in a surprising state of

preservation) and other large buildings, which lie scattered along this coast, prove that formerly a considerable city occupied this place, and that its port, open by nature, has been of great importance :—

"I asked of Time for whom these Temples rose,
Which, prostrate by his hand, in silence lie,
His lips disdained the mystery to disclose,
And borne on swifter wing, he hurried by.

These broken columns whose? I asked of Fame,
Her kindling breath gives life to works sublime;
With downcast looks of mingled grief and shame,
She heav'd the uncertain sigh, and followed Time.

Wrapp'd in amazement o'er the mould'ring pile,
I saw Oblivion pass with giant stride,
And while his visage wore pride's scornful smile,
Haply thou know'st—then tell me whose? I cried,
Whose the vast domes that e'en in ruin shine?
I reck not whose, he cried—they now are mine."

The foregoing lines are from the Italian, and have never been translated into English before.

Leaving Arzew, we arrive at Cape Ferrat, remarkable for a high rock, which, standing out at a small distance from it in the sea, resembles a ship under sail. A short distance from this Cape is,

ORAN,

formerly called Warran, an important, fortified city, about a mile and a half in circumference, built upon the declivity, and near the foot of a high mountain.

It is naturally a place of great strength, and made much more so by art ; but it is commanded by the adjacent hills. It was taken by the Spaniards, in 1509, and retaken by the Algerines, in 1708 ; but in 1732 the Spaniards became again masters of it, but evacuated it in 1792. The latter, on their first conquest of this place, built several beautiful churches and other edifices in the Roman style of architecture.

Vessels, sailing with a favourable wind to or from Spain, generally make the passage between Oran and Carthagena in fifteen hours ; and cruisers established between these two ports would more effectually intercept the trade from the Mediterranean to the sea than Gibraltar.

The country round Oran presents a variety of pleasing prospects and cool retreats, numerous plantations of orange trees, picturesque, rocky precipices, and rills of water trickling down them.

Five miles beyond Oran, is the Mers el Kèeber, the Portus Magnus, or great Port of the Romans, so called according to Pliny from its great size. It is formed by a neck of land, which advances almost a furlong into the Bay, securing it from the north and north-east winds.

Two leagues to the west is Cape Falcon, beyond which are the two islands Ha-beeba, and further on is Cape Figalo, not far from the Sinan, the most considerable of the brooks which fall into the

Wed el Mailah, " the salt river." Its sources are in the southern confines of the plains of Zei-doure, through which district it glides in a variety of beautiful windings. It was near the banks of this river, which might be occasionally swelled, where the elder Barbarossa scattered about his treasure when he was pursued by the victorious Spaniards, his last, though ineffectual effort to retard the pursuit of his enemies. The Wed el Mailah, a little after it is united with the Sinan, discharges itself into the Harshgoone.

Westward of the latter are several ancient ruins, called Tackumbreet, where the City Siga, or Sigeum, once the metropolis of Sciphax and other Mauritanian Kings was situated. Opposite Tackumbreet is a small island, the Acra of the ancient geography. This forms the port of Harshgoone, where vessels of the greatest burthen may lie in safety.

Tackumbreet is situated on the western bank, near the mouth of the river Tafna, the ancient Siga. This river is made up of the Isser, the ancient Assanus, the Barbata, and other smaller rivulets.

Six leagues to the west of Tafna, is Cape Hone, the foreland of the mountains of Traara. It is the " Great Promontory" of Ptolemy. The meridian of London falls in nearly with this cape.

A short distance to the west of Cape Hone, is Twunt, which, with the Trara mountains, are the

western boundary of the Province of Oran, and consequently of Algeria.

THE PROVINCE OF ORAN.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE INLAND PLACES.

RETURNING to the westward from Twunt, five leagues to the southward of the mouth of the river Tafna, is the City of—

TLEMCEN,

as the French write it, or Telemsen, or Tlemsan, according to the Moorish pronunciation. It is almost surrounded by trees, and situated upon a rising ground, below a range of rocky precipices, the Sachratain of Edrisi ; these make a part of the middle Atlas, and upon the first ridge of them (for there is a much higher one to the southward) there is a large strip of level ground, that throws out from every part of it a number of fountains. These, after uniting gradually into small brooks, and turning some mills, fall in a variety of cascades as they approach Tlemcen which they supply with an abundance of water.

In the west part of the city, there is a large square basin of Moorish workmanship, two hundred yards long, and about one hundred broad. The inhabitants have a tradition, that formerly the Kings of Tlemcen entertained themselves upon this water,

while their subjects were here taught the art of rowing and navigation. But the water of the Sacratain, as Leo observes, being easily turned off from its ordinary course, this basin might have been rather designed for a reservoir, in case of a siege; not to mention the constant use of it at all other times, in preserving a quantity of water sufficient to supply the beautiful gardens and plantations that lie below it. Edrisi takes notice of a structure of this kind into which the fountain of Om-Jahia discharged itself.

Most of the walls of Tlemcen have been built, or rather moulded in frames, a method of building according to Pliny, made use of by the Africans and Spaniards, in his time. The mortar of which they consist is made up of sand, lime, and gravel, which, by being at first well tempered and mixed together, has attained a strength and solidity not inferior to stone. The several stages and removes of these frames are still observable, some of which are at least a hundred yards in length and two yards in height and thickness, by which may be estimated the immense quantity that was made use of at one time. About the year 1670, Hassan, then Dey of Algiers, laid most of this city in ruins, as a punishment for the disaffection of the inhabitants; so that there is not remaining above one-sixth part of the old Tlemcen, which, when entire, might have been four miles in circuit.

Among the eastern part of these ruins are several shafts of pillars and other fragments of Roman antiquities, and in the walls of a mosque, made out of these old materials, there are a number of altars dedicated to the Dü Manes.

The houses are constructed similar to others in the province, contrasting singularly with its imposing ruins.

There is a fort here capable of containing five thousand soldiers, which is surrounded by a wall forty feet high, of similar construction to most Moorish forts in the interior, being only for musketry. The present population is reduced to about twenty thousand, of which a thousand are of the Jewish persuasion : a few years ago Abd el Kader established a cannon foundry here.

About half a mile from the present town there is an immense inclosure, surrounded by a wall, in part of which are the remains of half a tower, about sixty feet high, by twenty square. Further on, towards the River Tafna, exists the half of a similar tower, and the Arab legend says that they were formerly one and the same ; but that having been built by a Jew mason and an Arab, they had some quarrel relative to the settlement of their claims for the building it, when the Jew's half took wing during the night, and next morning, to the utter astonishment of all parties, the Jew's half was discovered in its present site.

Southward of Tlemcen beyond the mountains of the middle Atlas, is the Desert of Angad, whose numerous inhabitants are the most notorious robbers in Africa.

Upon the banks of the Isser (mentioned by Fenelon, in Telemachus, as flowing over golden sands) which is the easternmost branch of the Tafna, are the baths of Seedy Ebly ; and after them, commence the rich plains of Zeidoure, which extend themselves through a beautiful interchange of hills and valleys, to the banks of the Wed el Mailah, at thirty miles distance. About the middle of them is the Shurph el Graab, or "the pinnacle of the ravens," a high pointed precipice, with a branch of the Sinan running by it. The Welled Halfa and Zeir are the principal Arabs of this neighbourhood.

Six leagues to the south of the Sinan, is Jibbel Karkar, a high range of rocky mountains, bending to the south. Beyond them are the mountains of the Beni-Smeal, with the Arabs' Harar a short distance beyond them in the Sahara. After them, again, at the distance of five days' journey to the south south-west, are the villages of Figig, noted for their plantations of palm trees, from which the western parts of the province are supplied with figs.

Beyond the River Mailah, as far as Oran, is the Shibka, as they call a very extensive plain of sandy, saltish ground, which is dry in Summer ; but covered with water in the Winter.

The Ammeer have their encampments in the neighbourhood, who, from their long intercourse with the Spaniards, while they were masters of Oran, retain several of their customs.

To the southward of the Shibka are the mountains of Souf el Tell and Taffarowy which form a part of the Atlas; the extensive ruins of Arbaal lie on one side, and those of Tessailah, on the other. The latter, which, from an affinity in the name, might belong to the ancient Astacites, are surrounded with some of the most fertile plains of this country, cultivated by the Weled Ali, the enemies of the Weled Zeir and Halfa.

Crossing, afterwards nearly in the same parallel, the rivers Makerra and Hamaite, both of which fall into the Zig, we arrive at Mascara, a collection of mud-walled houses, built in the midst of a plain, at ten leagues' distance from Musty-gannim. There is a small fort to defend it against the neighbouring Arabs. The Hashem, who are the Bedoweens of this part of the country, are called Jowaite, or gentlemen; before the French conquest they were exempt from taxes and served only as volunteers when the Algerines wanted their assistance.

Mascara is situated on a table land, between two small hills, commanding a view of the immense plains which run north-east and south-west several leagues in extent.

The present population may be about fifteen

thousand, of whom, from five to six hundred are of the Jewish persuasion.

Five leagues to the north-east of Mascara is El-Callah, the largest market of this country for carpets and burnooses. This also, though larger than Mascara, is a dirty, ill built town, without either drains, pavement, or causeways, being built, as the name implies, upon an eminence, and in the midst of other mountains. There are several villages of the same nature, and similarly situated, surrounding it, all of them very profitably employed in the same woollen manufacture. It has a citadel, where the Turks formerly had a garrison. From some large stones and pieces of marble of ancient workmanship remaining here, it may have been formerly a city of the Romans; the Gitlui, or Apfar, perhaps, of Ptolemy.

Some leagues further, is the River Minah, which falls into the Shelliff, at El Had, near the plains of Elmildegah, where the Swidde have their chief abodes. El Had may signify a mountain by way of eminence, such as those of the Benizerwall may be properly called, which run here parallel with the Shelliff. This part of the Atlas is celebrated for the quantity and delicacy of its figs, such as those might be which Cato, eager for the third Punic war, threw down before the Roman Senate, saying, "The country (Africa) where this fine fruit grows, is but a three days' voyage from Rome." From that

time, he never spoke in the Senate upon any subject, without concluding with these words, "And I am also of opinion, that Carthage ought to be destroyed."

Seedy Abid, a celebrated sanctuary, lies four leagues further, at a little distance only from the influx of the Arhew into the Shelliff. Opposite it, on the other side of the Shelliff, is Mazounah, written Mezounah, by the French, a dirty, mud-walled village, without the least appearance of any such Roman Temples and sumptuous edifices, as are mentioned by Dapper and Marmol. It, is, however, as remarkable for its woollen manufactures, as either Mascara or El-Callah, and is delightfully situated under the side of the Little Atlas. The Weled Seleema are the neighbouring Bedoweens.

In the same meridian nearly with Mazoana, at eightheen leagues distance, is

TAGADEMPT.

The ruins of the ancient City are very extensive, it was one of the oldest in Africa, and was governed by the ancestors of the celebrated Abd el Kader, the latter erected, some years ago, a modern city upon its site, and made it the capital of his dominions.

In 1841, it contained five thousand inhabitants, of whom, two or three hundred were Jews. The

main street, thirty feet wide, was laid out in the European style, and contained two cafés. He also established a manufactory for muskets, which made about eight a day. However, on the advance of the French army, Abd el Kader ordered the whole town to be destroyed and evacuated by the inhabitants, who all quitted it, except one old man too feeble to escape, who had been overlooked by his fellow-townsmen, and whom the French soldiers, on their arrival, butchered in cold blood.

Lions are very numerous in this neighbourhood.

Returning to the Shelliff, four leagues from Seedy Abd, is Memounturroy, as the Weled Spaihee, who live near it, call an old square tower, formerly a sepulchral monument of the Romans. This, like many other ancient edifices, is supposed to have been built over a treasure ; and the Arabs say that the following was inscribed on it, by Prince Tizai :—

> " My treasure is in my shade,
> And my shade is in my treasure.
> Search for it ; despair not ;
> Yes, despair ; do not search."

Round this monument, there are several massy blocks of marble, hollowed out in the shape of coffins.

Five miles further from the banks of the Shelliff, are the ruins of Memon and Sinaab, formerly two

contiguous cities. The latter, which might have been three miles in circumference, is by far the most considerable ; nothing, however, now remains more than large pieces of walls and capacious cisterns.

Wan-nash-reese, the Gueneseirs of Sanson, and the Ganser of Du Val, lies eight leagues to the southward of Sinaab. It is a high, rugged mountain, generally covered with snow, and on these accounts, is one of the principal land marks of this country, conspicuous all the way from El-Callah to Medea, above a number of smaller mountains surrounding it at different distances. This mountain was probably the Zalacus of Ptolemy ; as the Sinaab, from the position seven leagues to the northward, should be his Oppidoneum.

The Wed-el-Fuddah or "River of Plate," has its source in this mountain. In considerable rains many flakes of lead ore, for which this mountain is celebrated, are brought down by the river : and being afterwards left upon the bank and glittering in the sun, gave rise to the name. Abulfeeda, with other later geographers, has been mistaken in deducing the river Shelliff, instead of only this branch of it, from Wannashreese.

The Weled Uxeire and the Lataff, run on each side of the Fiddah : and opposite its mouth are the mud walled villages of Merjejah, and of the Beni Rashid. In former ages the latter had a citadel, two

thousand houses, and a race of warlike inhabitants, who commanded this country as far as El-Callah and Mascara. But at present the castle is in ruins : the two thousand houses are reduced to a few cottages, and the people, long subject to the Turkish government, are become equally timorous and cowardly as their neighbours. However their fruits, and particularly their figs, for which they were always celebrated, continue in the same repute, and may dispute with those of the Beni-Zerwall, for size and delicacy of taste.

Two leagues to the eastward of the Beni Reshid on the northern bank of the Shelliff, is El Herba, with a narrow strip of plain, fertile ground behind it. Here are several small, marble pillars of a blueish color and good workmanship; but the capitals, which were of the Corinthian order, are defaced. There are besides several stone coffins.

El Khada-rah lies thirteen miles only, in a direct line from the River Fuddah, though, by the intervention of mountains, it is as much more in the course of travelling. It is situated upon a rising ground, on the brink of the Shelliff in the same meridian with Shershell : and appears by the ruins to have been three miles in circumference. A range of mountains, rising immediately from the opposite banks of the Shelliff, shelters it from the north wind ; while a mile to the southward, Jibbel Dwee, another high mountain of a conical shape, supplies

the small and beautiful plains between them, with a plentiful rill of excellent water. The perpetual verdure of these plains, might in all probability have given the name of El Khadarah or El Chuhdary, that is "the green" to these ruins.

Seven leagues to the east, at a short distance from the Shelliff, are the ruins of El Herba, another Roman town, of the same name and extent with that just now described. The same name occurs very frequently in this country, it means "pulled down" or "destroyed." Here the Shelliff begins to widen through a plain not inferior in extent and fertility to any in Algeria. The Atlas Mountains which from the Beni Zerwall to El Khadarah were close to the Shelliff are here two leagues to the northward of that river.

Millianah, is situated upon these mountains half a mile above this plain, and two leagues to the eastwards of El Herba. It lies exposed to the south and south west and is nothing but a small village surrounded by a delapidated wall, with three gates, each defended by three small towers. The houses are tiled instead of having flat roofs, covered with plaister of terrace, according to the custom of the country. However, if the access to it was less troublesome, Millianah has several things to recommend it : for it is exceedingly well watered from the adjoining mountain of Jibbel Zickar, which is one of the most considerable of this country. It is

surrounded by a number of fruitful gardens and vineyards, and besides this, it enjoys a most delightful prospect of the rich, arable country of the Jendrill, Matmata, and other Arabs, as far as Medeah. In the Spring, the devotees of Algiers, Blida, Medea, and the neighbouring villages come, with great reverence, to kiss the shrine of Sede Youseph, the tutelar Saint of this city.

There are several fragments at Millianah of Roman architecture.

Eight miles to the east, north-east of this town, midway between the Shelliff and the sea, are the Hammam, or "the baths," of Mereega, the aquæ Callidæ Colonia of the ancients. The largest and most frequented of them is a basin, twelve feet square, and four in depth; and the water which bubbles up is so hot, as to be barely supportable; after it has filled this cistern, it passes on to one much smaller, which is made use of by the Jews, who are not permitted to bathe in company, or in the same place with the Mahomethans. These baths were formerly covered, and had corridors of stone running round the basins, but at present they are exposed to the weather, and are half full of stones and rubbish, yet, notwithstanding, all this a great concourse of people usually resort to them in the Spring, the season of these waters, which are considered very efficacious in curing the jaundice, rheu-

matism, and some of the most inveterate distempers. Higher up the hill there is another bath, which, being of too intense a heat to bathe in, the water is conducted, through a long pipe, into another chamber, where it is used for "Douche" baths. Between this and the lower bath are the ruins of an old Roman town, equal to that of Herba, and at a short distance from it, are several tombs and coffins of stone. Long swords, with long, cross handles, have been often found in these parts.

The country surrounding these baths, inhabited by the Bookelcran and the Wurza, is made up of a succession of exceedingly rugged hills, and deep valleys, each of them in their turn, very difficult and dangerous to pass over. Yet this danger and fatigue is sufficiently recompensed, by travelling afterwards through the rich and beautiful plains of the Hadjoute, and the Mettijiah which lie beyond them to the northward. The latter are called by Abulfeda, Bledeah Kibberah, that is "a vast country" being nearly fifty miles long, and twenty broad, watered in every part by a variety of springs and rivulets. The numerous country seats and "Mash-areas," as they call the farms of the principal inhabitants of Algiers, are in these plains; and it is chiefly from them that the metropolis is supplied with provisions. Flax, Alhenna,, roots, pot-herbs, rice, fruit, and grain of all kinds, are produced here

in such perfection, that the Mettijiah may be justly reckoned the garden of Algeria.

MOUNTAINS.

In the following arrangement of this part of the geography of Algeria, I have followed the lucid and admirable classification of M. Lamaque, which rectifies the mistakes and confusion of former geographers.

The following are the principal mountains; there are several masses of smaller hills, but not of sufficient importance to particularise here.

The Atlas mountains, so justly celebrated by the ancients, on account of their great height, are divided into the Great, the Middle, and the Little Atlas.

The Great Atlas is that chain next the desert of Sahara, and forms the true meridianal limit of the regency. The Middle Atlas is between this chain and the sea, at nearly equal distances, one from the other, and the Little Atlas extends from the neighbourhood of Millianah, to the western boundary of the province of Constantina.

These mountains are said to have taken their name from Atlas, King of Mauritania, a great astronomer, contemporary with Moses, and the first who taught the doctrine of the sphere.

From his taking observations of the stars from a mountain, the poets represented him to have been

turned into one, and that he had to sustain the heavens upon his shoulders.

A very intelligent, and otherwise correct English writer, has fallen into the error of saying that these mountains "were rarely or ever equal to those of our own Island." I have seen all the principal mountains of Great Britain, and they cannot be compared to the sublime range of Mount Atlas; and to show the great difference between them, I give the following dimensions :—

Crossfield, the highest mountain in England, - - -	3,390
Macgillicuddy's, the highest in Ireland, - - -	3,404
Ben Nevis, the highest in Scotland, - - - -	4,380
Highest peak of the Atlas, - - - - -	12,000

The Atlas mountains, when seen from the distance of a few miles, particularly of an afternoon, with two-thirds of their height above the clouds, which often float at a short distance, comparatively above their base, present a beautiful appearance. The soil of various colours, laid bare in many places upon the sides of the mountains, the vegetation of many hues, the distant mountains looking of a rich purple and blue, extending into the distance till they blend indistinctly with the sky. This scene, richly tinted with the lurid glow of an African sun, was one of the sublimest sights I ever beheld.

The Merjejah mountains are near the coast, in the eastern part of the Province of Oran.

The Biban are not far to the south of the Jurjurah, in the Western extremity of the province of Constantina.

The Jurjurah, the highest mountain in Barbary, is at least eight leagues long, and excepting some arable land near the centre, the whole, from one end to the other, is a continued range of naked rocks and precipices. It is the *Mons Ferratus* of the middle ages, and is situated in the extreme western part of the province of Constantina : it extends from the sea near Cape Sigli, to the eastern extremity of the Little Atlas. The present inhabitants, proud and intractable, are descended from the ancient Numidians, and have always made themselves respected by their conquerors.

That fine passage in Doctor Clarke's travels, where he speaks of the Pyramids of Egypt, may be applied to the barren magnificence of Jurjurah :—

" Ideas of duration almost endless—of power inconceivable—of majesty supreme—of solitude most awful—of grandeur—of desolation, and of repose."

MINERALS, &c.

We have a very incomplete knowledge of the mineral relics of Algeria, the soil having as yet been but very partially examined ; there is no doubt, however, that a search would amply repay the trouble and expense. The scattered evidences mentioned in se-

veral modern authors, may give an idea of what a proper examination might discover.

The coral fishery was exclusively possessed by the French for several centuries, being sold to them by the Deys for an annual payment. The corals of Calle, Bone, and Tabarca are superior to the others. The great quantities collected in the last few years, have rendered the French apprehensive that they would soon be exhausted ; but if so, the deficiency could be supplied by other beds of coral recently discovered. In 1831, seven vessels, which explored the shores of the gulf Callo, obtained, in fifteen days, seven thousand, seven hundred pounds of coral of enormous dimensions. Very beautiful specimens have also been found in the gulf of Bougie and on the coast of Tunis and Oran.

From Cape Bon to the isles of Zafran, comprising an extent of three hundred leagues of coast, the fishing has every chance of success, and a sub-marine examination of the geology of these coasts would certainly produce valuable discoveries.

Among the productions of the province of Constantina, must be reckoned the marble of Numidia, so often mentioned by the ancient writers. The Roman architects greatly valued that of a saffron colour, with purple spots. In the mountains of Ras el Hamrah, or the Red Cape, there are marble quarries ; two of them contain white marble, veined with pale grey, and considerable

quantities also of a statuary marble, as fine as that of Carrara. In these quarries have been recently found some unfinished columns and blocks, together with wedges partly driven in, to detach the latter from the mass. It is supposed by some that these were thus left by the Romans, on the occasion of some sudden calamity.

The rocks at the north of Bone, are of veined marble, and there are also several veins of quartz and mica.

The common flint stone is so rarely found, that, in some parts, English merchant vessels that have had them for ballast, have disposed of them at Algiers for seven shillings the hundred weight.

There are two or three kinds of pipe, and potter's clay : the former of which generally burns a pale red. Fuller's earth also is dug in great quantities, as is also the steatite or soap earth, which is in great esteem in their baths for washing and softening the skin. Lac Lunœ, which the Arabs sometimes use as a styptic, lies usually in the Sahara, in the sutures of the rocks, while a coarse sort, both of umbre and ochre, with a hard species of almagra, or Spanish bole, more frequently occurs in the Tell.

The ancient name of Mount Ferratus, given to the chain of the Jurjura (which extends from the gulf of Bougie to the limits of the Great Desert) and that also of the Cape of Iron (the eastern pro-

montory of the gulf of Stora, seems to indicate the existence of mines of iron upon this coast. The ore is plentiful upon the mountains called Dwee and Zikkar, near Millianah, the latter of which is rich and ponderous, with a mixture sometimes of cinnabar. Abd el Kader established an iron manufactory at Millianah, under the direction of a French mineralogist, who stated that copper mines existed not very far from this town, which could easily be worked. Copper and tin mines are abundant on the banks of the River Mina.

Chalcedonys, garnets, and tourmalines are found in abundance. Pliny, who asserted that diamonds, mixed with gold, were found in certain parts of Africa, was disbelieved by all modern writers, as not only had no diamonds been met with for several centuries, but no other ancient writer had mentioned it. Recent researches, however, have proved that Pliny was correct, as diamonds have been discovered at Constantina among the sands containing gold, brought down by the River Rummel. There is reason to believe that the Wed el Dhahab, or river of gold, which joins the Rummel, owes its name to the particles of gold which the sands of this river contain, no doubt, in great abundance. And it is very probable that the name of Wed el Fuddal, or River of Silver, (a course of water which descends from the Middle Atlas) has been given also from its sands containing particles of that metal ; and what

further warrants this belief is the assertion of an Arabic author, named Bekri, who says that it is a mine of silver which has given its name to Medjana, which means the city of the mines.

Lead is very plentiful in the mountains, inhabited by the Beni bou Taleb, situated seven leagues from Seteef. Their method of refining is by putting alternate layers of ore and wood, and then setting fire to the pile, they frequently extract eighty pounds of pure metal from one hundred weight of ore. There is also antimony and sulphur, but these tribes are so jealous, or so ignorant, that they have almost always opposed the extraction of these minerals during the dominion of the Turks.

There are some other natural productions worthy the attention of mineralogists. Pliny informs us, that in order to preserve the buildings of Carthage, which were constructed of a perishable stone, from the effects of the moist winds, they covered them with a plaster of pitch and bitumen, which was brought from Numidia. Leo Africanus mentions two sorts of bitumen, which was common in the country; one, that he had seen prepared in the Atlas mountains, was the same as our tar, the other, was collected in springs, of which the fetid waters preserved a bituminous taste. This latter is, probably, petroleum, which, according to some modern geologists, is found in the Atlas. Petroleum is produced

by coal, and its presence often indicates the existence of stratum of that mineral.

As to the geological construction of the soil, it varies to infinity throughout Algeria: no country is more physically diversified, or presents such striking contrasts. The soil in the Jurjurah, is blackish, and mixed with small broken stones, resembling slate. The masses of rocks are of the same stone; they are disposed in stratum, some perpendicular, but oftener oblique. To the left and right of the "gates of iron" the rocks are composed of narrow and perpendicular layers, parallel to each other; they rise, in some places, to a height of five or six hundred feet; these layers are composed of smaller horizontal layers; the stones are calcareous and of a blackish colour; there are many layers crushed and mingled together, those that remain rise, like immense parts of walls, to a great height, with trees in the intervening spaces.

The coast of the province of Algiers, is composed of marl, marly sands, and calcareous rocks. It is to be presumed that these last rocks are identical with the Jura Limestone, and rest upon a thick bed of argillaceous marl. The numerous springs which rise in the environs of Algiers render this opinion very probable.

In the Little Atlas, the mountains are composed of calcareous matter and brown freestone; but the valleys, as well as the plain on the coast, are

sandy ; the soil is often impregnated with marine salt, and presents even in the neighbouring countries of the Sahara some plains entirely covered with that substance. It contains, besides, a great quantity of saltpetre ; the sides of the hills are covered with numerous ravines, which contain streams of water in the rainy season.

The order of superposition of the layers in the chain of the Little Atlas, is little known ; there are here and there some masses of sand more or less calcareous, enclosing marine shells, differing slightly from those found at present in the Mediterranean. As to the hills upon the sea-shore, they are based upon a rather hard, calcareous foundation, covered in several places by a tertiary formation analogous to that of the sub-appennine hills, and in which the waters have worn a great many ravines.

At different places, between Algiers and Douera, I observed immense quantities of fossil shells and interior casts of shells in beds belonging to the tertiary formation ; some parts of the road were formed scarcely of anything else ; the most common were those of the trochus, natica, terrebratula (petrified casts of these are said to have been first noticed by Pliny) pecten, and corbula. I obtained a fossil helix ; Parkinson, speaking of the latter, says, " Shells of this genus are rarely found in a state of petrifaction. The circumstances of conservation in which they are found are, generally, such as are ex-

plicable on the supposition of their having become involved in the gradually accreting, tufaceous matter which is deposited by certain streams, or in the stalactitic concretions forming in the cavities of limestone rocks, of comparatively modern formation.

Several travellers speak of the existence of volcanic traces, particularly in the province of Constantina; and numerous sulphuric and other mineral springs confirm their assertions. At a short distance from Sour Guslan, the ancient Auzia, is a fountain called Ain Kidran or "Fountain of Tar." The Arabs say that this fountain was produced miraculously; and they use the bitumen which flows from it to anoint their camels. At a little more than a day's journey from Constantina towards the west, in a place named Srama, there are some very hot mineral springs. All the places known under the name of Hammam, contain waters of a similar description. The soil where these springs prevail, is for the most part of volcanic formation, particularly where the Hammam Meskouteen is situated—the only accessible way to the latter is over deserts, very steep rocks, profound abysses, gloomy forests, and some very dangerous defiles. The Hammam is in a large valley, and consists of some boiling springs situated on a gentle declivity, and overhung with a thick and black vapour, which vitiates the atmosphere to a considerable distance—the calcined and burning soil is very hot to the feet, and gives back, in riding

over it, a hollow fallacious sound, which makes a stranger apprehensive of sinking through it. Instead of pure water there issues from these springs a mixture of hot water, bitumen, and sulphur, which boils up at the summit of small elevations through circular openings about two feet in diameter, and falling forms a small brook, which flows through the bottom of the valley, gradually widening in its course.

The crater (that is the circular openings just mentioned) contains very beautiful productions, particularly arroganites of different shapes, such as stars, mushrooms, needles, &c. &c. They approach nearly to the zoolite, and like that become gelatinous in nitrous acid. There are also beautiful stalactites of sulphur, and native vitriol. In the parts where the water boils with the greatest force the mercury rises to two hundred and three, Farenheit.

There are at various distances large pyramids of calcareous stone, with water sometimes rising at their summits, which falling in sheets have by degrees washed away the surrounding soil, and formed these natural pyramids ; there are also several ancient craters choked up or almost destroyed. The space that these different springs occupy is about one thousand two hundred feet square. There are constantly issuing out of these fountains with the water, a mixture of shrill, murmuring, or deep sounds, which the Arabs believe to be the music of the Jenoune, or Fairies, who are supposed to take up their

abode at this place in particular, and to be the grand agents in all these extraordinary sounds and appearances.

The neighbouring Arabs say that the pyramids of Hammam Meskouteen are the petrified tents of their ancestors, which will give an idea of their dimensions.

The territory of Algeria abounds with salt and nitre; and it is the opinion of several eminent naturalists, that this considerable mixture of active particles, is one of the principal causes of the extreme fertility of the soil. It is well known, relative to vegetation, the effects of gypsum (which is a composition of chalk and sulphur,) when it is employed as manure; numerous experiments have proved also that saline residuum has great influence when it is intimately combined with earth. Thus nature in this country has supplied in profusion, sulphur, bitumen, &c., which advantageously supplies the place of manure, as with the exception of burning the weeds and stubble in some few places, the Arabs use none.

THE POPULATION OF ALGERIA.

A VERY singular spectacle to the foreigner arriving at Algiers, is the contrast of the races who crowd the city in great numbers. At first, the mixture gives the idea of inexpressible confusion; so nume-

rous and various are the costumes, languages, gestures, colours, features, &c., &c. People from almost every part of the world, may be met here. All the primitive types of the African race, all those that the migrations or the successive conquests have transplanted to this ancient soil, some, modified by admixture, others remaining unaltered by living in tribes, and leading a nomade life.

The principal races of Algeria are—

The Kabyles, or Berbers, a race essentially African, composed of Getules, Lybians and Numidians, as also Vandals, Goths, &c.

The Arabs, descended from the Arabian conquerors, who introduced Ismalism into Africa.

The Moors, principally descended from those driven out of Spain, after the destruction of the Caliphat, and partly from those people who inhabited cities of Mauritanian and Phœnician origin.

The Turks, who now are few in number, are mostly the remains of the Turkish militia, raised by the Dey of Algiers in the Ottoman Empire.

The Cologlies, the offspring of Turks and native-women.

The Jews, who are descended not from any particular tribe or emigration, but from persons of that religion, who have settled individually in the country, at different periods, for the purposes of commerce.

The Negroes, brought at first from the Torrid Zone as slaves, and who have improved their condition by adopting with the Arabic language, the doctrines of the Koran.

To these I must add some neighbouring tribes of the desert. The Biskris, who act as porters at Algiers, and the Mezzabites, together with various emigrants from the shores of the Mediterranean.

THE KABYLES, OR BERBERS.

THESE people have the appellation of Beni prefixed to the name of their respective tribes, as the Arabs have that of Welled. Both words have the same signification, and imply "the children," or offspring of such a tribe; thus, Beni Rashid, and Welled Halfa, equally signify the sons of Rashid, and the sons of Halfa, or the Rashides, or Halfides, as the ancient geographers and historians would have named them.

The Kabyles are dark complexioned, with brown and glossy hair. They are not generally tall in stature, but robust and muscular. They differ from the Arabs in the roundness of their heads and in having shorter features.

They live in villages called "Dashkras," which consist of a number of huts or "Gurbies." These huts, are generally raised either with hurdles, daubed

over with mud, or else they are built out of the materials of some adjacent ruins, or else with square cakes of clay baked in the sun ; the entrance is by a low, narrow door ; and the only windows are small apertures in the wall ; the roofs are covered with straw or turf, supported by reeds, or branches of trees. There is rarely more than one chamber in the largest of them, which serves for a kitchen, dining room, and bed chamber ; besides, one corner of it is reserved for their foals, calves, and kids. As these hovels are always fixed and immoveable, they are, undoubtedly, what the ancients called Magalia, and, therefore, Carthage itself, before the time of Dido, was nothing more than one of these Dashkras.

The Kabyles from their situation and language (all the rest of the country speaking the Arabic tongue) seem to be the only people of Algeria who can bear relation to the ancient Africans. For, notwithstanding the great variety of conquests to which the low and cultivated parts of this country have been so often subject, yet it is more than probable, that all, or the greater part of the mountainous districts were, from their rugged situation, in a great measure left free and unmolested. While the nomades, therefore, of the plains, and the inhabitants of such cities and villages, as were of easy access, submitted by degrees to the loss of their old language, and to the introduction of such new laws and customs, as

were consequent upon these invasions: those who retired to the mountains, and there formed themselves into Kabyleah (clans) may have been supposed to have been the least acquainted with these changes. It may be further stated, that as they would be consequently obliged to converse chiefly among themselves, so, for the same reason, they would continue to be much the same people, and in all probability preserve their original language without any considerable alteration. The Carthagenians, no doubt, who possessed all this country, must, in consequence of their numerous conquests and colonies, have, in some degree, introduced their own language, a specimen of which is still preserved in the Poenulus of Plautus. Other and greater changes and alterations also must have been introduced by the successive invasions of the Romans, Vandals, Arabs, and Turks.

The articles manufactured by the Kabyles, like their oil, hides, wood, and wax, are chiefly consumed at home, and rarely permitted to be exported to foreign markets. Carpets, which are much coarser than those from Turkey, are manufactured in great numbers; coarse linen, is also made in most of the villages. But the chief branch of their manufactures is making "hykes" or a sort of blanket. The women alone are employed in this work, who do not use the shuttle, but conduct every thread of the woof with the

fingers. These hykes are of different sizes, qualities and fineness; their usual size is six yards long, and five or six feet broad, and they not only serve for a complete dress in the day, but for a bed and covering at night. It is a loose and troublesome garment, getting frequently disarranged and falling upon the ground: so that the person who wears it, is every moment obliged to tuck it up, and fold it anew about his body.

The burnoose, which answers to our cloak is frequently worn over these hykes. This too is another great branch of their woollen manufacture. It is woven in one piece, and shaped strait about the neck, with a cape for a covering to the head, and wide below like a cloak. The burnoose without the cape, seems to answer to the Roman pallium, and with it to the bardocucullus.

Under the hyke some wear a close bodied frock or tunic (a Jillebba) with, or without sleeves. This too, no less than the hyke, is girded about their bodies particularly when they are engaged in any labour, exercise, or employment: at which times they usually throw off their burnooses and hykes, and remain only in their tunics.

The dress of the female Kabyles, is the same as that of the men, with the exception of the burnoose, which they never wear. They also leave the head uncovered, and the hair unconfined, they go barefooted and do not veil like the female Moors.

The character of the Kabyles, and the ancient Numidians is the same, they are fickle, turbulent, and perfidious.

THE ARABS.

THE few Arabs who live in towns, villages, &c., are not called Bedoweens; this term is applied only to those who lead a nomade life.

The Bedoweens, like their great ancestors the Arabians, live in tents called "Hymas," from the shelter which they afford the inhabitants: and "beet el shaar" or "houses of hair" from the materials or webs of goats' hair of which they are made.

When there are several tents together they are usually placed in a circle, and constitute a "Douwar." Each tent is of an oblong shape not unlike the bottom of a ship turned upside down, as Sallust has long since described them. However they differ in size according to the number of people who live in them, and are accordingly supported by one or more pillars, while a curtain, or carpet let down from each of these divisions, turns the whole into so many apartments, one of which is reserved for the domestic animals. These tents are kept firm and steady, by bracing or stretching down their eves with cords, tied to hooked wooden pins, well pointed, which they drive into the ground with a mallet,

The pillars are straight poles, eight, or ten feet high, and three, or four inches in diameter : serving not only to support the tent itself, but being full of hooks fixed there for the purpose, the Arabs hang upon them their baskets, clothes, saddles, and accoutrements of war.

The Arabs, in taking their rest, lie stretched out upon the ground, without bed, mattress, or pillow, wrapping themselves up only in their hykes, and lying as they find room, upon a mat or carpet, in the middle, or in the corner of the tent. Those indeed who are married, have each of them a portion of the tent to themselves, partitioned off by a curtain : the rest accommodate themselves as conveniently as they can, in the way described above. The account which Virgil has given of the manner of living, and of the encampments among the Lybian shepherds, even to the circumstance of carrying along with them their faithful domestic animals, is as correct as if he had written it at the present time.

The manufactures of the Arabs are the same as those of the Kabyles described in the account of that people.

The Arabs wear the burnoose and hyke ; this last garment is similar to the Roman toga. The Arabs join the two upper corners of it, with thread or a wooden bodkin, and after having placed them first

over one of their shoulders, they then fold the rest about their bodies. The outer fold serving them frequently instead of an apron in which they carry loaves, corn, herbs &c. They go without drawers but frequently wear tunics. They also wear long girdles usually made of worsted, and woven into a variety of figures. They are made to fold several times round the body, and one end being doubled back, and sewed along the edges, serves them for a purse.

All the several orders, and degrees of these people, from the Bedoween, to the Bashaw, eat in the same manner: first washing their hands and then sitting down cross-legged, round a mat or low table, where their dishes are placed; no use is made of a table cloth; each person contenting himself with a share of a long towel that is carelessly laid round about the mat or table: knives and spoons, are also of little service, for their animal food being always well roasted, or boiled, requires no carving: the cuscassowe, pilloe, and other dishes also, which we should reckon among spoon meats, are served up in the same manner, never hot, but only lukewarm: so that the whole company eat greedily of it, without the least danger of burning their fingers. They tear the flesh into small pieces, and the cuscassowe they make into pellets, squeezing as much of them both together as will make a mouthful.

Cuscassowe is a paste of flower, made into small particles, about half the size of a grain of rice, and dried in the sun, or over the fire. When required for use, the poorer people boil it with milk, or stew it in butter, but the higher classes add to it broth, made from poultry, &c.

At all their meals, they feed themselves with their right hand, the left being reserved for more ignoble uses.

As soon as any person is satisfied, he rises up, and washes his hands, arms, and beard, without taking the least notice of the remaining part of the company: while another takes his place; the servant sometimes succeeding his master; for there is no distinction of tables.

At all these entertainments the men and women eat separately: not the least intercourse or communication being allowed between them.

When they sit down to these meals, or when they eat or drink at other times, and in fact when they enter upon their daily employments, or any other action, they always use the word Bismillah. "In the name of God:" with the same seriousness and reverence also, they pronounce after their meals, or when their affairs are attended with success, the word "Alhandillah." "God be praised."

The Arab follows no regular trade, or employment. His life is one continued round of idleness, or diver-

sion ; when no hunting match, or other amusement calls him abroad, he does nothing all day, but loiter at home, smoke his pipe (which they call " drinking smoke") and repose himself under some neighbouring shade. He has not the least relish for domestic amusements, and is rarely known to converse with his wife, or play with his children. What he values above all, is his horse, in which he places his highest satisfaction : being seldom well pleased or in good humour but when he is far from home, riding at full speed, or hunting, in which exercises the Arabs are very skilful.

Their method of hunting is this : after they have roused the beast from his retirement, and pursued it into some adjacent plain, their first endeavour is, by frequently overtaking and turning it, to tire and perplex the animal, and then watching an opportunity, they either throw their lance, at some distance, or else coming close by its side, which is the most courageous way, they lodge their spears in its body. When a lion is hunted, a whole district is summoned to appear, who, forming themselves first into a circle, enclose a space of three, four, or five miles, in compass, according to the number of the people, and the nature of the ground that is fixed on, for the scene of action. The men on foot advance first, rushing into the thickets, with their dogs and spears, to put up the game, while the horsemen, keeping a

little behind, are always ready to charge, upon the first sally of the wild beast. In this manner they proceed, still contracting their circle, till they all at last either close together, or meet with some other game to divert them. The accidental pastime upon these occasions is sometimes very great, for the different kinds of animals that lie within this compass, being thus driven together, or frightened from their haunts, they rarely fail having a variety of chases after hares, jackalls, hyænas, and other wild beasts.

Those who delight in fowling do not spring the game as we do with dogs ; but shading themselves with an oblong piece of canvass stretched over a couple of reeds, or sticks, like a door, they walk with it through the several brakes and avenues, where they expect to find game. This canvass is generally spotted, or painted, with the figure of a leopard ; and a little below the top of it, there is one or more holes for the fowler to look through, and observe what passes before him. The partridge and other gregarious birds, will, upon the approach of the canvass, covey together, although they were feeding before at some distance from each other. The woodcock, quail, and such birds also as do not commonly feed in flocks, will, upon sight of this extended canvass, stand still and look astonished, which gives the sportsman an opportunity of coming very near them ; and then resting the canvass upon

the ground, and directing the muzzle of his gun through one of the holes, he will sometimes shoot a whole covey at once. The Arabs have another, though a more laborious method of catching these birds ; for observing that they become languid and fatigued after they have been hastily put up two or three times, they immediately run in upon them, and knock them down with sticks. They are also well acquainted with that method of catching partridges, which is called tunnelling, and to make the capture the greater, they will sometimes place behind the net a cage, with some tame ones in it, which, by their perpetual chirping and calling, quickly bring down the coveys that are within hearing, and so decoy great numbers of them.

The Arabs retain a great many of the manners and customs, which we read of in sacred and profane history. Excepting in religion, they are the same people they were two or three thousand years ago. Upon meeting one another, they still use the primitive salutation of Salem Al-lic-im, that is, " peace be unto you." Before the Mahometan conquests, the expression was, Allah Heeka, or God prolong your life. Inferiors, out of deference and respect, kiss the feet, knees, or garments, of their superiors ; but children and the nearest relations kiss the hand only. The posture they observe in giving one another the asslem-mah, or the compli-

ment of peace, is to lay their right hand upon the breast, while others, who are more intimately acquainted, or are of equal age and dignity, mutually kiss the hand, the head, or shoulder of each other. At the feast of the Hyram, and upon other great solemnities, the wife compliments her husband by kissing his hand.

They consider it no disgrace for persons of the highest character to occupy themselves in what we should consider menial employments. The greatest prince assists in the most laborious actions of husbandry ; neither is he ashamed to fetch a lamb from his herd and kill it, while his wife is impatient till she has prepared her fire and kettle to dress it. The custom of walking either barefooted or in slippers, requires the ancient compliment of bringing water, upon the arrival of a stranger, to wash his feet, and the person who performs this office, giving at the same time the mar-habbah, or " welcome," is the master, who always distinguishes himself by being the most officious, and who, after his entertainment is prepared, considers it a breach of respect to sit down with his guests, but stands all the time, and serves them.

Yet, this outward behaviour of the Arab is frequently the very reverse of his real feeling, for he is naturally false, thievish, and treacherous ; and it sometimes happens that those very persons are overtaken and pillaged in the morning, who were

entertained the night before with the greatest hospitality—

" In the ways hast thou sat for them, as the Arabians in the wilderness."—Jeremiah, c. iii, v. 2.

Neither are they to be accused of plundering strangers only, or whoever they may find unarmed or defenceless ; but for those numerous hereditary and implacable animosities, which continually exist among themselves. The greatest as well as the smallest tribes are perpetually at variance with one another; frequently occasioned by the most trifling causes.

However, they are brave, and fond of independence, and even under the Turkish governments, when they suffered so much by untimely revolts, upon the least disturbance, or prospect of a revolution, they were the first in arms ; and there is no doubt they will be continually troublesome to the French, more particularly in the remote parts of Algeria.

The civility and respect which the politer nations of Europe properly pay the fair sex, are looked upon by them as extravagancies, and as so many infringements of that law of nature which assigns to man the pre-eminence ; for the matrons of this country have the greatest share of toil and occupation upon their hands. While the lazy husband reposes himself under some neighbouring shade, and the young people of both sexes attend to the flocks, the wives

are all day occupied either at their looms, in grinding at the mill, or in making bread cuscassowe, dweeda, and other farinaceous preparations. Neither is this all, for to finish the day,

> "At the time of the evening, the time that women go out,"
> HOMER'S Od.

they have to provide themselves with a pitcher, or a goat's skin, and tying their sucking children behind them, walk, perhaps, two or three miles to fetch water. Yet in the midst of all these labours and incumbrances, not one of them will lay aside any of their ornaments, neither their nose-jewels, bracelets, ear-rings, nor looking-glasses, which they hang upon their breasts.

The Arabian women are swarthy, and, unlike the Moorish women, are rarely good looking.

No people are so superstitious as the Arabs. They hang about their children's necks the figure of an open hand, usually the right, as a counter-charm to the evil eye, for five is, with them an unlucky number, and "five (meaning their fingers) in your eyes," is one of their sayings, expressive of cursing and defiance. Those of riper years carry with them some paragraphs of the Koran, which they place upon their breasts, or sew under their caps, to prevent fascination and witchcraft, and to secure themselves from illness and misfortunes. The virtue of these scrolls and charms is supposed also to be so

far universal, that they suspend them upon the necks of their camels, cattle, horses, and other beasts of burthen. They place great faith in magicians and sorcerers.

The Arabs and other Mahometans, have a great veneration for their Marabbutts, or Saints, who are generally persons of a rigid and austere life, continually employing themselves either in counting over their beads, or else in meditation, and prayer. In touching each bead of their chaplets, consisting usually of ninety-nine. They either say "God be praised'" "God is great," or "God forgive me." This saintship is hereditary, and the son is entitled to the same reverence and esteem as the father, provided he can keep up and maintain the same gravity and decorum. Some of them also share in the same reputation with their prophet, of receiving visions, and conversing with the Deity, while others, who pretend to work miracles are endowed with gifts, which Mahomet did not pretend to.

These people, also, are equally foolish and extravagant in their Jaffar-eah, as they call the pretensions they make to the knowledge of future events and contingencies. Their Thalebs pretend to have the prophecies of Ali, the son-in-law of their Prophet, in which they assert that he has left them a general and chronological account of the most remarkable occurrences which have happened in the world since his time, or which are to occur in future ages.

They have a very remarkable prophecy, which promises to the Christians a restoration of all those kingdoms which they formerly lost to the Turks and Saracens, and there is no part of the Mahometan dominions, extensive as they are, where it is not universally received, in consequence of which, the gates of their cities are carefully shut up every Friday, the day of their congregation, from ten till twelve o'clock in the morning, that being, as they say, the day and the time prefixed for this great catastrophe.

The Arabs believe that the English are not christians *entirely*, but something between christians and Mahometans. They say that Mahomet was a great friend to the English, and wrote them a letter exhorting them to turn to the true faith, and that they should be the first people under his sway, and that we we were almost converted, when the death of Mahomet put an end to the correspondence, and we remained infidels: but still we are not so bad as the others, because we do not worship images.

With respect to the form of government that subsists among them, every Douwar may be looked upon as a little principality: where the family that is of the greatest name, substance, and reputation, usually presides. However this honor does not always descend lineally from father to son; but as it was among their predecessors the Numidians, when the heir is too young, or subject

to any infirmity, then they make choice of the uncle, or some other relation who, for prudence and wisdom, is judged to be the best qualified. Yet notwithstanding a despotic power is lodged in this person; all grievances and disputes are accommodated by calling in to his assistance one, or two persons out of each tent. And as the offender is considered as a brother, the sentence is always given on the favourable side: and even in the most enormous crimes, rarely any other punishment is inflicted than banishment. When this person has the superintendence over a single Douwar, he is commonly called the Sheikh; but when his authority reaches over several, then he has the title either of Sheikh el Kibbeer, great Lord or Elder, or else of Emir or Prince. As few either of these Sheikhs &c., know how to write their names, all their letters or decrees are stamped with their proper rings, seals, or signets, which are usually of silver or cornelian, with their respective names engraved upon them on one side, and the name of their principality &c., or some sentence of the Koran, on the other.

I shall finish this account of the Arabs, with a literal translation of a few sentences frequently used by them in their letters.

Salvation upon you! how bitter is your absence, how obscure, and solitary seems the world to me. I supplicate Him, before whose glory all heads bow

to unite us again after separation by His all-powerful will.

Salvation like to the perfume of musk and the sweetest amber, upon her, who is remomed from me, and of whom my heart is the poor dwelling.

Oh my writing when thou shalt arrive in their presence, kiss the ground a thousand times, then their hands, tell them that they are the light of my eyes, and bless them in my name.

Since you are removed from me, and that my foot cannot conduct me into your presence, or towards your excellence, I borrow the steps of the messenger, and I converse with you with the tongue of the pen.

I write to you, and speak to you, with a lively friendship, for my heart is with you, and my body alone with myself. My desire had been never to have separated myself from you, but the decree of God, is stronger than the decree of man.

THE MOORS.

The men are of middling stature, with black hair, sun burnt complexions, and full faces, their features are not so strongly marked as those of the Arabs and Kabyles, and their figures are not so well formed. Their noses, instead of being aquiline, are generally straight, and their eyes are open, and expressive.

The women do not differ much from this type, they

have almost all black hair, and good eyes with pleasing figures. Their admiration of embonpoint induces them to resort to every means to produce it, and some are thus rendered exceedingly disagreeable to European eyes.

The Moors reside principally in the cities; some live in the country, but not far from the towns, and they have their dwellings near to one another to defend themselves from the Arabs, and Kabyles, who would otherwise plunder and kill them, if they were not thus mutually protected.

The country Moors live very temperately, they have no other bread, but a sort of thin cake like a crumpet, of which however they partake but seldom. They are very fond of the Barbary Fig, which after gathering and eating perhaps twenty, they will then seat themselves in the shade of the tree, and either fall asleep, or crouching down smoke their pipe, and then, if coffee can be obtained in the neighbourhood, they will drink great quantities of it.

The Moors of the cities are not so sober. They eat poultry, butchers' meat, and plenty of pastry, and cuscassowe. They pass their time either in the coffee-houses, smoking and playing draughts, or in the shops of the barbers who have always some political news to relate, or city scandal.

It is well known that wine is forbidden them by their religion. Formerly they abstained from it,

but now the French manners have been introduced at Algiers they are less reserved, and many even drink immoderately ; but in order not to offend the Prophet, they withdraw to some dark place where they cannot see the Heavens.

They eat little meat, but a great deal of fruit, fresh, dried, and preserved. They make butter, but it is generally eaten in a rancid state, from the heat of the climate. Among their provisions, the most delicious to their taste is mutton, preserved in oil mixed with fat.

Besides several kinds of fricassees, forced, roasted and boiled meats (the two first always highly seasoned) the richer part of the Moors, and Turks, mix up a variety of dishes with almonds, dates, sweetmeats, milk and honey, which it would be too tedious to enumerate. At some of their festivals, they will have as many as two hundred dishes. Their method of taking their meals is the same as that of the Arabs.

The idleness, and carelessness of the Moors, prevents them from devoting themselves to industry. As they have few wants they never attempt any great undertakings. They form no important speculations, and they often pass half a day crouched down upon the ground, in a state between sleeping and waking.

We find, notwithstanding, some Moors very active and intelligent. They exercise almost all the trades

known in Europe. Cabinet makers, carpenters, rope makers, coopers, clock makers, tanners, &c., &c. But they work so slowly, that they scarcely gain sufficient for the wants of their families.

The coffee-houses are commonly kept by Moors and Jews, and this sort of occupation suits the former better than any other, as the business is conducted by negro slaves, and they can then pass the day in smoking and drinking without trouble. We may therefore judge how much agriculture is neglected among them; it is the slaves, or Kabyles who cultivate the gardens, and the arable lands attached to the country houses. A Moor who cultivates the land is always poor, and trade suffers much by this state of things.

Their principal objects of sale or exchange, are embroidery, Morocco leather, woollen, silk, and cotton goods. They breed no cattle but what is sufficient for their own wants, and they re-sell many objects that they buy of the Arabs, and Kabyles, at a trifling profit; such as tobacco, wax, soap, dry and fresh fruits, tools, and coffee, which the caravans bring them from Mecca; and sugar, calicoes, and earthenware, introduced by the English vessels.

The Moorish children have very good complexions; we have a wrong idea of the Moors, in considering them as naturally of a swarthy nation. The men by wearing only the scull cap, are exposed so much to the sun, that they quickly attain the dark hue of

the Arab : but the women, keeping more at home, preserve their beauty till they are thirty : at which age they begin to be wrinkled. It sometimes happens that their girls are mothers at eleven, and grandmothers at twenty two, and as their lives are usually of the same length as those of the Europeans, several of these matrons have lived to see their children of several generations.

When the Moorish women appear in public, they always wrap themselves up closely in their hykes. But in the summer months when they retire to their country seats, they walk abroad with less caution : though even then, upon the approach of a stranger, they drop their veils. But should the stranger be a European, and they can do so unobserved by any of the Mahometans, they will generally uncover the whole or a part of the face.

They bind and plait their hair with ribbons. Where nature has been less liberal in this ornament the defect is supplied with art, and foreign hair is procured to be interwoven with the natural. After the hair is so plaited, they proceed to dress their heads by tying over it a triangular piece of linen, adorned with various figures in needle-work. This, among persons of superior rank, is covered with a " Sarmah," as they call it, which is made in the same triangular shape, of thin flexible plates of gold or silver, cut through and engraved in imitation of lace. A handkerchief of crape, gauze, silk, or

painted linen, bound close over the "Sarmah," and falling afterwards carelessly over the hair, completes the head dress of the Moorish women.

But they do not think themselves completely dressed, till they have tinged their eye-lids with al-ka-hol, that is, the powder of lead ore. And this is performed by first dipping into this powder a small bodkin, of the size of a small quill, and then drawing it through the eye-lids over the ball of the eye. The sooty color, which is thus communicated to the eyes, is considered to add great beauty to persons of all complexions, but I cannot say that I admire it. This practice is of the greatest antiquity, where Jezebel is said "to have painted her face," the Hebrew words signify "she adjusted (or set off) her eyes with the powder of pouk" or lead ore, and it was a custom used by the Egyptians, Greeks and Romans.

At all their principal entertainments, and to show mirth and gladness upon other occasions, the women welcome the arrival of each guest, by squalling out several times together, loo, loo, loo. At their funerals also, and upon other melancholy occasions, they repeat the same noise, only they make it more deep and hollow, and end each period with loud sighs. Upon these occasions they hire several women, who, like the Praeficae, or mourning women of old, are "skilful in lamentation," and great mistresses of these melancholy expressions; and in fact they perform their parts, with such appropriate sounds,

gestures, &c., that they seldom fail to work up the assembly to an extraordinary pitch of grief. Europeans have often been very sensibly affected by the lamentations, whenever they were made in the neighbouring houses.

"Call for the mourning women, that they may take up a wailing for us, that our eyes may run down with tears, and our eye-lids gush out with water."—Jeremiah, c. ix, v. 17, 18.

Most families grind their wheat and barley at home, having two portable mill-stones for that purpose; the upper one is turned round by a small handle of wood, or iron, which is placed in the rim. When this stone is large, or expedition is required, then a second person is called in, to assist; and it is usual for the women alone to be concerned in this employment, who seat themselves opposite one another with the mill-stones between them.

"Two women shall be grinding at the mill, the one shall be taken, and the other left."—Matthew, c. xxiv, v. 40.

The Moors and Turks, with some of the principal Arabs, wear, upon the crown of the head, a small hemispherical cap of scarlet cloth, the making of which forms a great branch of their manufactures. The turban is a long, narrow strip of linen, silk, or muslin, folded round the bottom of these caps, and distinguishes, by the number and shape of the folds, the several orders and degrees

of soldiers, and sometimes of citizens, from one another.

It is customary for the Moors to wear shirts of linen, cotton, or gauze, underneath their tunics, with a girdle generally of worsted round the waist, which they fold several times round the body, and one end being doubled back and sewed along the edges, serves them for a purse. The Turks make a further use of these girdles, by fixing their knives and daggers in them, while the hojias, that is, their writers and secretaries, suspend their ink-horns in a similar manner.

The Moors, as well as the Turks, are early risers, and drink their "shorbah," as they call a mess of pottage, before the dawning of the day; at which time they constantly attend the public devotions; after their "Muezzins," or criers have first called out thrice, from the tops of their mosques, "Come to prayers; it is better to pray than to sleep." After their devotions, they go to their several occupations till ten in the morning, the usual time of dining, after which, they return again to their employment till "Asa," or the afternoon prayers, when all kind of work ceases, and their shops are shut up. The supper commonly follows the prayers of "Magreb," or sun set; and their devotions being repeated at the setting of the watch, or when it begins to be dark, they take their rest immediately afterwards. In the intervals of these stated hours of public prayer, or when no

business is to be transacted, grave and elderly persons are frequently occupied in counting over their beads, repeating Staffar-allah, that is, "God forgive me," at each of them. Sometimes, also, instead of sitting cross-legged, or upon their heels or knees their usual posture upon these devotional occasions, as being the most convenient for their prostrations, they sit down with their knees placed upright before them, and putting their faces between, they offer up, in a more private and retired manner, their ejaculations and prayers. Others will mutter over by heart (moving their bodies to and fro, all the time) such portions of the Koran as are then proper for their meditation. Several of their scribes are so well conversant with this book, that they can correctly transcribe it by memory from one end to the other.

Those who are not so religiously disposed, spend the day either in conversing with one another, at the Bazaars, coffee-houses, haf-effs, or barbers' shops, and other public places, where they drink coffee, or sherbet, and play at chess, in which they are very skilful, and sometimes are so well matched as to continue the same game by adjournment, for several days, before it is finished, when it is their custom to put a feather in the turban of the conqueror.

Although very fond of the game, I never played

with any of them, as their mode is different to ours.

Norden derives the name of chess from Schecque, or Xeque, a Moorish word for King, Prince, or Lord.

A Moorish Prince was once playing this game, when an order came to put him to death. The Prince begged for permission to finish the game first, which was granted him ; but before it was finished, a messenger arrived with the news that the King, who had sentenced him to death, was killed by his subjects, who had now chosen this chess-loving Prince for their Sovereign.

I once saw an old Moor, who was unexpectedly check mated by his son, catch up the chess-board (which was fortunately made of thin wood) and hit his undutiful offspring a violent thump upon the head—a mode of concluding the game not mentioned in " Hoyle."

THE TURKS.

The Turks are fine men, with white skins, stern countenances, and strongly marked features. Their manner of living is the same as that of the Moors, with whom they are almost always confounded ; but their costume is slightly different, the colours being brighter, the embroidery richer, and the turban com-

posed often of a cashmere, or other expensive material. Before the French conquest, those who possessed capital generally assisted in fitting out the corsairs, the profits of which were proportionately divided; others turning their attention to trade, kept shops, in which were sold jewels, essences, perfumes, and rich stuffs; they were honorable in their dealings, and in addition to strictly keeping their words, they never made an overcharge.

The Turks regard agriculture as a contemptible and degrading occupation, and have always left it to slaves, and Kabyles; they pay great attention to their gardens, which are very beautiful and well kept at their country houses, in the environs of Algiers. Their grounds are always enclosed with hedges, which present to the eye a profusion of various flowers.

Before the arrival of the French, the Turkish militia were sovereign masters of the regency, and exercised a military despotism over the inhabitants. The Yataghan respected no one, from the miserable Jew, that it massacred with impunity, to the Dey, whom it frequently destroyed when desirable.

Such a preponderance did this body possess, through their ancient privileges, that they had under their controul the whole power of the state. They levied taxes, and promoted and supported piracy; besides, in time of war, they assumed the

command of all the troops in the Regency, Moors, Arabs, Kabyles, and Cologlies ; all submitted and blindly obeyed, and showed, in their presence, a fear which they did not attempt to conceal.

A Cadi and a Mufti, established in each city, administered justice equally between the natives, or between the natives and the Turks ; the latter were never punished publicly, but at the house of the Aga, where they were either bastinadoed or decapitated, according to the nature of the crime.

The murder of a Turk subjected the perpetrator to the most cruel punishment, such as impalement, or burning alive. When the criminal was so fortunate as to escape, the Aga set out at the head of his cavalry, to the place where the crime had been committed, and seizing several fathers of families, generally had them decapitated without any examination. It was by such a system of cruel severity that the Turks acquired such immense power over the different people ; it was by thus ruling with the sabre, that they were enabled to hold peaceably this country, which the French, although ten times more numerous, keep with such trouble and expense.

Education is much neglected among them ; the best instructed can only read, write, and cast accounts ; as to their women, they were all Moorish,

and have been already described under the head of Moors.

The religion of the Turks does not at all differ from that of the Arabs and Moors; they have the same ceremonies and places of worship, and their marriages are conducted in the same manner: only one thing distinguishes them from the others, and that is, they have no superstition; they will decapitate a Marabbut, or Saint, with as much indifference, as they would a private person; and they never wear amulets, or talismans, to preserve them from the effects of sorcery.

Like all other people of Algeria, they have a great veneration for their tombs; there is not a Turkish family, which does not possess a private sepulchre, surrounded with walls and planted with trees; these are often mausoleums, formed with elegant columns supporting a sort of gallery, with a fountain in the middle, which falls upon a basin of white marble. These tombs are most elegant and perfect.

Almost all their tumulary stones are sculptured, and represent a turban at the head. They are generally from two, to two and a half feet high, and and the flowers carefully cultivated which surround them, express their veneration for the dead.

The Turks are extremely indolent, passing the greatest part of the day sitting cross-legged, smoking and drinking.

Before the French conquest, they frequently en-

tered the houses of the Jews, Moors, and Arabs, and after ill treating the slaves, and their master, would carry off the women, together with a considerable sum of money. If the owner dared to make the slightest resistance they soon dispatched him with their yataghans.

The greatest part of the Turkish militia were unmarried, as by marrying they lost a part of their privileges. The married generally possessed, in addition to the four wives allowed by the Koran, several concubines, and the grossest licentiousness reigned among them all.

Unlike the generality of Mahometans, the Turks of Algeria are quite destitute of sobriety, and far from imitating the Arabs in this respect, they disregard the injunctions of the Prophet, and freely drink the strongest liquors, without adopting the custom of the Moors in similar cases, who call spirits and wine, broth and barley water.

THE COLOGLIES.

The Cologlies are generally fine men with regular features, white skins, and a certain plumpness, which is, no doubt, derived from their mothers.

Their character is a mixture of these two natures ; they have the apathy of the Turks, and the lymphatic temperament of the Moorish women, par-

ticularly the girls, who are always brought up in the same manner as their mothers.

Dressed like the Moors, they are distinguished by great personal cleanliness and foppery. Like the Turks, they pass greatest part of the day in extreme idleness. Rich in the possessions inherited from their fathers, they seldom follow any occupation. The grounds which surround their country houses are cultivated by slaves, whom they greatly ill-treat, if not perfectly satisfied with their services.

An excessive vanity and profound ignorance distinguishes them from the other people of Algeria. Before the French occupation, they were not entitled to the privileges of the Turks, and excepting that they were exempt from the despotism of the latter, on account of the ties of blood, their social situation was the same as the Moors. They were not obliged to take up arms except in time of war, and their pacific character has always prevented their bravery from being justly appreciated.

The Cologlies seem born to pass their life in that state of tranquil and luxurious idleness, which allows the time to pass, without even an effort to enjoy any other pleasure.

As the recruiting the Turkish militia has ceased with the conquest, the race of Cologlies will be effaced from Algeria in the course of a few years, a circumstance not to be regretted, as they hardly

possess one virtue, and seem to have inherited the evil qualities only, of their parents.

THE JEWS.

THE African Jews do not differ from the European. Since the French conquest they have the same political rights as the other subjects of that nation; but under the Turkish governments, they were subjected to the most cruel and degrading despotism. In those times a Mahometan could always procure the death of a Jew, by merely charging him with having insulted that religion; the charge was sufficient, and without proof, the miserable victim was led to instant execution. In those times, also, had a Jew been seen to look, even by accident, at a Mosque, he would have been torn to pieces by the mob. Among other enactments, they were obliged to wear black, or some other dark colour; they were not allowed to ride on horseback, and the women were not permitted to cover the face.

The Jewesses are generally beautiful and well made; their countenances have a certain pleasing expression, peculiar to these women. An open forehead, very beautiful eyes, good eye-brows, a well made nose, a small mouth, and white, regular teeth.

The dress of the Jews differs little from that of the Moors, they wear short and full trowsers, and

two vests, one with long sleeves, embroidered in silk or gold,according to the circumstances of the wearer; the colour is almost always black or very dark, in consequence of the law just mentioned of the former regency, and which custom still makes them adopt. When it is cold, or when travelling, they wear in addition a blue burnoose. The girdle round their waist is blue or very dark. Like the Mahometans they let the beard grow, and shave the head, on which they wear a cap, with a black handkerchief tied round the lower part. They never go barefooted, but wear Turkish slippers or shoes, and sometimes stockings, particularly during the Winter.

The women generally wear over their shift a black, or blue woollen dress, reaching nearly to the ground, and with short sleeves. They always go bare-legged, and wear only small leather slippers, which scarcely cover the toes, and which have no hind quarter. They have long hair which they turn up, and generally envelope in a silk or cotton handkerchief, upon which, sometimes, they place the "Sarmah" of the Moorish women. They never cover up the face. This is their common dress; but on Sabbaths and fête-days, their costume is much richer, and they add a profusion of jewellery and other ornaments.

Once a week they dye their hands and feet with henna, blacken their eye-brows, and remove superfluous hairs with a depillatory.

The children are dressed in the same manner as their parents, only the girls do not wear the sarmah, or jewels, till the ninth year, at which period they are about arriving at maturity.

Excepting agriculture, in which they never employ themselves, the Jews carry on every description of commerce and trade, they excel in making articles of delicate construction; such as jewellery, watches, &c. Active to an excess, busy and intriguing, they form a great contrast to the Moors, who are all carelessness and apathy. In the principal cities of Algeria there are many Jew bankers, who carry on an extensive business. Their traders take long journeys with manufactured goods, which produce them considerable profits.

But their chief occupation, which all follow more or less, is that of a broker, or agent. The principal Jews negotiate with the European merchants, while the others act for the Turks and Moors, and particularly for the country people; nothing is sold in the markets without the agency of a Jew. If a countryman brings his poultry &c., he is immediately surrounded with Jews, who are eager to transact business on commission, and by their agency the Arabs, and Kabyles always obtain a better price for their goods than if they sold them themselves. So skilful is this race in making bargains.

The Jewish children never remain idle, as those of the Moors, and Arabs, who do nothing but play

from morning till night. As soon as they begin to grow up they accompany their fathers, and are thus early initiated in traffic; they frequently sell articles of utility, or ornament, in the streets, they know very shrewdly how to deal, and are soon as cunning as their parents.

On the death of one of these people the body is enveloped in a kind of painted cloth, which allows the shape to be seen; in this state they take it to the gate of the cemetery, those who accompany it being dressed in very ragged, and dirty clothes as a sign of mourning, and walking in the greatest disorder. They carry the body first to the tomb of the grand rabbin, Ben Smiah Simon, at the foot of the fort called Twenty-four Hours; after this they take the body to the sepulchre, during which they sing a prayer. Some old men, and rabbin then join hands, and forming a circle, sing, and dance round the grave. One amongst them, leaving the circle, distributes small pieces of gold at every turn that the old men make. When the prayer is finished, the dancers separate, and the body is lowered precipitately into its resting place.

They think that the Devil is always ready to take possession of the dead, and they throw the pieces of gold imagining that while "the old gentleman with the cloven hoofs" is occupied in picking them up, that he forgets to go to the grave, which they according fill up as quickly as possible.

With regard to the funerals of the women, they never take the same precautions, as they say, "Satan never tries to seize hold of them."

It is not unlikely that the rabbi come afterwards and pick up these pieces of gold, which will account for the origin of this foolish custom. If so, when these priests are capering round the grave, I should imagine that they sometimes found it rather difficult to keep from laughing in one another's faces, like the Roman augurs of old.

The Jews possess some excellent qualities ; they are kind, and humane, and pass the day in industry and prayer. Charitable by nature and principle, they are benevolent to all, but particularly to those of their own religion. It is much to be regretted that these good qualities should be tarnished by an insatiable avarice, which guides them in almost all their actions ; even their benevolence is partly influenced by it, as they think that charity is repaid them tenfold in Heaven, where God keeps an account of all their actions.

Libertinism is rare among the Jews ; and rarer among the men, than the women, who add to their graces an excessive coquetry.

Their principal amusements during the *fêtes*, are singing and dancing and concerts, where the men and women sing together, but dancing is exclusively confined to the latter.

The Jewesses enjoy great liberty ; young people of

both sexes associate before marriage. A ring accepted from the hand of her lover, unites a woman for life, even against the will of her relations. Young men of inferior rank have frequently caused rings to be conveyed to young ladies of rich families, to whom they could not otherwise have hoped to be allied, and thus the parents have been surprised, and forced to give up their daughter, or buy her back with a large sum of money.

On the arrival of the French, they found the Jews in a state of great abasement; the habit of submission, and the exaggerated accounts they had heard of the tyranny of their conquerors, rendered them timorous, and full of mistrust; these feelings however were soon changed, by the liberty and good treatment which they immediately enjoyed. They then assumed airs of consequence; these humble and submissive slaves took, in their turn, the tone and manner of master; their change of situation filled them with conceit, and insolence, which they have not yet lost. So true is it that the humblest and most degraded beings become the most arrogant when they have the power.

THE NEGROES

Are obtained by the Arabs in their commerce with the Sahara, and also from the inhabitants of Morocco, who are particularly engaged in this trade.

They take with them pedlary and different coloured cloths, which they exchange for gold dust and Negroes; the latter they sell on their return, upon the Barbary coast, and even in Asia Minor. These unfortunate creatures are generally valued according to their physical qualities. The young men who are robust and healthy fetch from seven to fifteen pounds sterling. Children from three to six pounds, and women from seven to thirty. It will be seen that the price of the women is much higher than that of the men; it is because they are commonly young, and generally able to conduct the domestic affairs of a house. These slaves attach themselves singularly to their masters in spite of the bad treatment they receive. They can purchase their freedom with money, or by long servitude; sometimes they become free at the death of their patrons, and then become citizens, after having embraced Ismalism. It is in this way that the negro population has established itself in this country. The emancipated negroes are distinguished from the others by an incision made in each cheek.

Notwithstanding the mixture of the blacks and the whites, there are no mulattoes. There are some Negresses of a dark, olive complexion with wolley hair, and flat noses; others are entirely black; these have good figures, aquiline noses, and open foreheads, their breasts are full, and several have them so extremely long, as to be able to lay them upon the

shoulder. The habit of living with the Moors, has made them adopt their customs; the men wear the turban, and dress very neatly, particularly those who inhabit Algiers. The free women dress like the female Moors, and like them they cover up the figure, but not so carefully. If they are poor they wear the same dress as the slaves, which consists in a white chemise with short sleeves, brown drawers fastened round the loins, and a piece of stuff with which they envelop the head.

The Negresses carry to excess their fondness for ornamental trinkets, they wear them round the neck, and arms, and suspend them to their ears; they dye the inside of the hands and feet with henna, and eradicate the hair from their bodies like the female Moors. They frequently use the bath, and notwithstanding their excessive cleanliness and their free use of perfumes, their bodies have a strong and disagreeable odour peculiar to their race.

The Negroes are very industrious. In the cities they follow nearly all trades, and in the country they employ themselves in agriculture.

Their music has extraordinary attractions for them, although it is the reverse of being melodious. The instruments they use when they give their concerts, are iron castanets, about a foot long and weighing nearly two pounds; a kind of tambourine made of tanned sheep skin, fastened over the mouth

of an earthen pot ; guitars made of a calibash, and enormous reed pipes.

The Negroes obtain money by practising on the credulity, and superstition of the Arabs. One of their artifices is what they call " Djelep," which is sometimes dangerous to the actors ; it is a ceremony in which they pretend to pass the devil into the body of those who wish it, because they believe that in possessing him, they will possess a knowledge of the future. This ceremony can only take place during forty days in the year, and at stated times fixed by the chief of the Negroes.

As to their political state, they enjoy the same rights as the Moors ; brave, and courageous they take up arms when the occasion requires it, and conduct themselves generally without reproach : they are Mussulmen, like the Moors and Arabs, but it is more in appearance than in reality ; they only go to the mosques on fête days, and then it is only to show their best dresses.

Many Negroes possess good qualities when slaves, which they lose on attaining their freedom. As soon as they are emancipated they become thieves, and liars, perfidious, and sanguinary, and throw themselves into the most violent fits of passion, upon the slightest contradiction.

Both sexes are exceedingly amorous ; but the women are more so than the men ; they have a marked preference for the whites. A Negro can have four

wives like the Moors, but they do not always avail themselves of this permission. The married women enjoy great liberty ; they go out with the face uncovered whenever they please, and even uncover their bosom; they are robust, and in a state of pregnancy they always attend to their usual occupations. Country Negresses generally work with their youngest child tied upon their back; when they travel they fasten it in this situation with a piece of woollen stuff.

Nature is as prodigal with regard to the physical development of the Negroes, as with the other people of Africa. Children are very precocious ; the girls are matured at the age of ten years, and the boys at fourteen or fifteen.

OTHER RACES, &c.

THERE are several other people of Algeria equally interesting, but of less numerical importance. It is natural to suppose that this country, so frequently invaded by foreigners, and never completely subdued, should contain, in the inaccessible retreats of the Atlas, numerous people who have maintained their independence, sometimes without mixture, and sometimes much altered by the climate and their unions with the neighbouring tribes. It is thus we find the Vandal type pure ; but these are very rare.

I shall, therefore, mention the tribes, which are most numerous, such as the Biskris and the Beni Mezzab.

The Biskris inhabit the south of Algeria, upon the confines of the desert, at the south of the great salt water lake, Shott. They have a brown complexion, and their manners, customs, and disposition differ essentially from those of the Arabs and the other tribes, although by their language, which is a corrupted dialect of the Arabic, it is evident that they are the remains of that celebrated people, and that their manners are altered by their alliances with the natives. This conjecture receives additional force, from the fact that the territory they inhabit was within the line of the Arabic invasion, which conquered Africa in the seventh century. The Biskris submitted to the regency, and the Dey maintained, in their territory, a Turkish garrison. The Biskris are of an obliging and faithful disposition, they were frequently employed in the principal houses as confidential servauts ; they had the monopoly of making and selling bread ; they were the only commissioners of Algiers, and they alone were employed by the government in the public works ; they were also the commercial agents in the trade between Algiers and Gadamis.

Blindness is very common among them, probably owing to their sojourn in the desert ; there were at Algiers, many blind Biskris, employed to guard the streets, and interior gates, during the night. They are all Mahometans.

The Beni Mezzab inhabit a part of the desert to the south of Algeria. It takes a caravan twenty days to reach this country, and in going there, the traveller passes five days beyond the frontier of Algeria without meeting with water.

The Mezzabites are of a peaceful disposition, active, and fond of trade ; their probity in business was proverbial at Algiers. The advantages they held from the Pachas were very great, privileged agents of the trade between Algiers and the interior of Africa ; they had also the monopoly of the public baths and mills, and were the only persons employed in the slaughter-houses, and who furnished their shambles with provisions. The Mezzabites are swarthy ; but their features and type are those of the Arabs.

According to M. Jueherau de St. Denis, who supposes that the whole regency at the beginning of the eighteenth century, did not contain more than two millions of inhabitants, the population of most of the towns had decreased considerably up to 1830. This writer believes that in stating the number of inhabitants at eight hundred thousand we are very near the mark ; but he does not include in this calculation those who dwell between the Little Atlas and the Sahara, who were never subject to the Dey of Algiers, and estimated at two hundred and thirty thousand souls, making a total of one million and thirty thousand, scarcely forty-seven inhabitants to every square league, or five thousand, seven hundred and sixty acres.

The comparative tables of the European population of Algeria, published by the French Government, for the following periods, are as follows :—

1843,	January, 1st	47,150
	March, 31st	47,038
	May, 1st	47,544
	June, 30th	55,122
	October, 1st of the same year	57,642

At the same period (October 1st) the population was thus composed :—

French	24,274
Spaniards	18,548
Maltese	6,402
Italians	6,332
Germans	2,086
	57,642

At the end of June, 1842, there weer in Algeria only forty thousand Europeans. It is superfluous to observe that this is the civil portion of the population ; the military force is about eighty thousand, which will shortly be encreased by fifteen thousand additional soldiers.

It is evident by this account of the movement of the European population in Algeria, that emigration is greatly on the increase ; it has more than doubled in the space of three years ; at the end

of 1840, there were only twenty-eight thousand, seven hundred and thirty-six civilians.

DOMESTIC ANIMALS.

THE principal riches of the people of Algeria consist in the number and quality of their cattle.

The Horse, formerly the glory and distinguishing badge of Numidia, is very much degenerated. The Arabs having been discouraged from keeping up a fine breed, which the Turkish officers were sure at one time or other to be masters of. A valuable and well trained Barbary horse is never to lie down; he is to stand still, and be quiet, whenever the rider quits him, and drops the bridle; he is, besides, to have a long pace, and to stop short, if required, in a full career; the first of which qualities shows the goodness and perfection of the horse: the proper management of the latter, shews the dexterity and address of the rider. No other motions are either practised or admired in these countries, where it is considered very unpolite to trot or amble.

The ass and the mule are their most hardy and useful creatures, requiring little or no attendance. The first is not generally trained for the saddle, at Algiers. The ass was formerly wild in this country, for Arran describes the hunting of wild asses, in

Africa, to which he was an eye witness. The mule is in general demand, and preferred to the horse, for common use. It is, certainly, surer-footed, and considerably stronger in proportion to its size.

The Kumrah is a little serviceable beast of burthen, between an ass, and a cow. It is single hoofed like the ass, but distinguished from it, in having a sleeker skin, with the tail and head similar to the mother's, but without horns.

Yet all the species are greatly inferior to the camel, an animal most useful to the Arabs for its strength, docility, and indefatigable patience. It can travel seven or eight days without water: while two quarts of beans, and barley, or else a few balls made of the flour, will support it for a whole day. Pliny's observation of their disturbing the water with their feet before they drink is very just, and it may be further observed, that they are a long time in drinking; first of all, thrusting their heads a great way above their nostrils into the water, and then making several successive draughts, in the same manner as pigeons.

Camels will travel with a burthen of six, or seven hundred weight. A few days journey being from ten to fifteen hours, at the rate of two miles and a half an hour. There are a great many of these animals in the plain of Metijiah and upon the sides

of the Little Atlas. Those in the environs of Algiers are particularly fine.

That species of camel, which is known to us by the name of dromedary, is called, in Algeria, Ashaary, but it is much rarer here than in Arabia. It is chiefly remarkable for its great swiftness. The Arabs say it will go as far in one day, as one of their best horses will in eight or ten : for which reason those messages which require haste, are in Gaetulia, and the more southern parts, dispatched upon dromedaries. If differs from the common camel, in being of a finer and rounder shape, and in having upon its back a smaller protuberance. This species (for the former as rarely deviating from the beaten road, travels with its head at liberty) is managed by a bridle which is usually fastened to a ring fixed in its nostrils.

The young dromedaries are born blind, and continue so for about ten days after birth ; and from this circumstance is derived the name—Ashaary, which signifies " ten,"

The black cattle, are generally very small and slender ; the fattest of them when brought from the stall rarely weighing above five or six hundred weight ; neither is their milk in proportion to their size : for notwithstanding the rich herbage of this country from December to July, a cow rarely gives above a quart of milk at a time, while the butter has

neither the substance, or richness of taste with that produced in English dairies. The Algerian cows have another imperfection; they lose their calves, and their milk together.

Here the sheep and the goat contribute also to the dairies, particularly in making cheese. Instead of rennet, especially in the summer season, they turn the milk with the flowers of the great headed thistle, or wild-artichoke, and putting the curds, afterwards, into small baskets, made with rushes, or with the dwarf palm, they bind them up close, and press them. These cheeses are rarely above two or three pounds in weight, and in shape and size like our penny loaves. Their method of making butter is by putting the milk, or cream, into a goat's skin turned inside out, which they suspend from one side of the tent to the other, and then pressing it to and fro, in one uniform direction, they quickly occasion the separation of the unctious and wheyey parts. A great quantity of butter is made in several places: which after it is boiled with salt, in order to precipitate the hairs and dirt occasioned in the churning, they put it into jars, and preserve it for use. Fresh butter soon grows sour and rancid.

The goat is similar to that of other countries. But there are two species of sheep, not known in Europe: the one, which is common all over the Levant, as well as well as the regency of Tunis, is distinguished by a broad tail, that ends sometimes

in a point; sometimes continues broad to the bottom. The flesh of this species tastes generally of the wool, and has not the tender fibres of the smaller tailed sheep. Yet the tail itself, which is greatly esteemed in their cuscassowes and pilloes, consists of a hard, solid fat, not inferior in taste to marrow.

The other species, which is bred in the neighbourhood of Gadamis Wurglah, and the more distant places of the Melanogaetuli, and Garamantes, is nearly as high as our fallow deer: and, excepting the head, does not differ much in shape. The heat of the climate and the scarcity of water, joined to the coarseness, and dryness, of the herbs they feed on, may be the reason, why their flesh is dry to the palate, and why their fleeces also, are as coarse and hairy as those of the goat.

All their cattle are very numerous and prolific. Several Arabian tribes, who can bring no more than three or four hundred horses into the field, are possessed of more than as many thousand camels, and triple that number of sheep and black cattle. The Arabs rarely diminish their flocks by using them for food, but live chiefly upon milk, bread, butter, dates or what they receive in exchange for their wool. Such cattle also, as are brought to their fairs, or to the neighbouring towns and villages, are very inconsiderable, when compared with the yearly increase. By proper care, therefore, and attention, or even if

these numerous flocks and herds had shelter from the inclemency of the weather during a small part only of the winter season, the whole country, in a few years, would be over-run with cattle.

Among the quadrupeds, that are not naturally tame and domesticated, may be reckoned those large herds of black cattle, called becker-el-wash, which have a rounder turn of body, a flatter face, with their horns bending more towards each other than in the tame kind. The becker-el-wash may be the bubalus of the ancients, or the bos Africanus of Bellonius; though what this author describes is little larger than the roe-buck, whereas the becker-el-wash is nearly of the same size as the red deer, with which also it agrees in color; but the race may have varied since then. The young calves of this species soon become tame, and herd with the other cattle.

Becker-el-wash is the name also given to a species of the deer kind, whose horns are exactly like those of our stag, but the size is only between the red and fallow deer. They appear to be of the same mild and tractable nature as the becker-el-wash. The female having no horns, is called in derision "fortass," that is, the broad scalp or scalled head.

The Fishtall, called, also, in some parts, Lerwee, is the most timorous species of the goat kind, plunging itself, when pursued, down rocks and precipices, if there are are any in its way. It is the

size of a heifer one year old; but has a rounder body, with a tuft of shaggy hair upon the knees about a foot long, and another upon the neck, of about five inches. It is similar in colour to the becker-el-wash; but the horns are wrinkled, and turned back like the goat's, from which, also, they differ, in being more than a foot long, and divided upon the forehead by a small strip of hair, as in the sheep kind. The fishtall, from its size, shape, and other circumstances, seems to be the tragelaphus of the ancients; an animal such as this is, between a goat and a deer.

Besides the common gazelle, or antelope, this country produces another species of the same shape and colour, but of the size of the roe-buck, with horns sometimes two feet long. This the natives call "lidmee."

The Becker-el-wash, and the gazelle, are gregarious, and have both of them the same habit of stopping suddenly when pursued, and of looking back for a short time upon the pursuers. Their haunts are also the same, being for the most part upon the confines of the Tell, and the Sahara. Gazelle is improperly interpreted by Bochart and others, the "hart," or the "fawn," that appellation being always given both in the Levant and in Barbary, to the animal which we call the antelope.

The most common species of dog is of a middle size, with soft, glossy hair, a long, thin body, pointed

nose, straight ears, and a very long tail. The general colour is pale yellow and white ; some are spotted, and a few are black, but the latter are very rare.

There is, also, another race, with long, curly hair, which nearly resembles the European. The animals of this species have longer noses and bodies than the other ; they appear less savage, and are as easily tamed as ours. The Arabs treat their dogs with great harshness, giving them little food, and making them undergo great privations ; this bad treatment has deprived this valuable race of all the social qualities which distinguished them elsewhere ; they are no longer the pleasing, caressing, and faithful companion, full of ardour for the interest of their masters, and always disposed to defend them, even at the expense of their own lives. Among the Arabs they cruel, sanguinary, always voracious, and never satisfied ; their looks are ferocious, and their countenances and appearance disagreeable.

The Mahometans consider dogs unclean animals, and this, very likely, is the reason why the Arabs ill-treat them.

Every Arabian chief has always several dogs, which guard his tent, and accompany him in his expeditions. A stranger entering one of their camps without being accompanied by an Arab, would, most likely, be devoured by the dogs, however well armed he might be, as they attack a stranger on every side

with such fierceness, that resistance is impossible. When the Arabs go to war, their dogs follow them, so that their camps contain more dogs than men. Those belonging to each individual guard the tent of their master, and are the only sentinels of the camp, and even, within sight of the enemy, the Arabian warriors sleep soundly, knowing that their dogs will wake them in case of an attack.

OTHER SPECIES.

Among the quadrupeds of a less tameable nature, the first place must be given to the lion, and then to the panther; for the tiger is not a native of Barbary. The females of both species have two rows of nipples, like a bitch, which give suck to three, sometimes to four or five whelps. When the little ones are cutting their teeth, they are usually seized with fevers, which carry off three out of four; and this is the reason, the Arabs say, why their numbers are so inconsiderable. But whether this is owing to such diseases, or to the great dispersion of the Arabs, or perhaps to the much easier way of killing them, since the invention of fire-arms; whatever may be the cause, it is certain there would be a great difficulty at present to procure a fiftieth part of those lions and panthers, which Africa contributed, formerly, to the brutal diversions of Rome.

Fire is what they are most afraid of; yet, not-

withstanding all the precaution of the Arabs in this respect—notwithstanding the barking of their dogs, and their own repeated cries and exclamations during the night, when they are suspected to be upon the prey, it frequently happens, that these ravenous beasts, disregarding all these terrors, will leap into the midst of a "Douwar," where the cattle are enclosed, and carry off a sheep or a goat. If these ravages are repeated, then the Arabs dig a pit where they are observed to enter, and covering it over slightly with reeds or small branches of trees, they frequently decoy and catch them. Pliny has taken notice of the same practice, which is also alluded to in Ezekiel. The flesh of the lion is in great esteem, having a considerable affinity to veal, in colour, taste, and flavour. The distinction of animals was little known or attended to among the ancient Romans, when, according to an observation of Lipsius, they called the lion a bear, and the panther a rat of Africa.

The most ferocious lions are met with between Bone and Tunis; they are much rarer in the province of Oran, and still more so, in the province of Algiers.

The Fraadh agrees with the leopard, in being spotted, but differs in other respects; for the skin is not only of a deeper colour, but also much coarser; nether is the animal of so fierce a nature. However, the Arabs foolishly imagine it to be a spurious

offspring between the lion and the leopardess. It feeds upon carrion, sometimes upon roots and herbs, like the jackal and the dubbah, and must be in great necessity when it attacks a sheep or a goat.

Besides this, there are two other animals that are marked like the leopard : but with this difference, that their spots are generally of a darker colour, as their fur is rather longer, and softer. The first is of the cat kind, about one third less than a full grown leopard, and may be taken for the lesser panther of Oppian. The other has a small pointed head with the teeth, feet, and other characteristics of the weazel kind. The body is about a foot long, round, and slender, with a regular succession of black and white ringlets upon the tail. This as well as the Ichneumon, searches after poultry : and provided it was tamer, and a little larger (as it is sometimes well scented) it might be taken for the ginetta. This animal has two names, being called by some, gat el ber-rany, that is the strange or foreign cat, and by others Shibbeardou : but it should be called, for the reasons above, the lesser ginetta.

The Dubbah, is of the badger kind, nearly the size of a wolf, but has a flatter body, and naturally limps upon the hinder right leg : yet, notwithstanding this imperfection, the dubbah is tolerably swift, and cannot be so easily run down by the hunters of these countries as the wild boar. The neck of

is so remarkably stiff, that in looking behind, or snatching obliquely at any object, it is obliged, in the same manner as the hog, the badger, and crocodile, to move the whole body. It is of a buff, or dun color, inclining to be reddish, with some transverse streaks of a dark brown: while the hairs upon the neck are about eight inches long, which it can occasionally erect, notwithstanding they are much softer than the bristles of a hog. The paws are large, and well armed with claws, serving, in want of other food, to lay open the medulla of the palmetta or dwarf palm, to dig up the roots of plants, and sometimes the graves of the dead, which lie among the Bedoweens, in the open fields, without being secured by walls, trenches, or inclosures. When the dubbah is taken, the Arabs are very particular to bury the head, for fear the brain, according to their superstition, should be used in sorcery, and enchantment; an ancient practice. Next to the lion and panther, the dubbah is the fiercest of the wild beasts of Algeria: and from the characteristics of having long hair upon its neck like a mane, moving its neck with difficulty, and disturbing the graves of the dead, it may lay a greater claim to the hyæna of the ancients, than the civet cat, or the badger, which are smaller animals, and not known in this country.

The Deeb, is of a darker color than the fox, though nearly the same size. It yelps every night

about the gardens, and villages, feeding as the dubbah does, upon roots, fruits, and carrion.

The Deeb is also the same with the jackal or the chathal of the more eastern countries.

The gat el kallah, or karrah kulak, that is the black cat, or black eared cat, as the Arabic and Turkish names signify, is of the size, and shape of a cat of the largest size. The body is of a redish brown, the belly of a lighter color, and sometimes spotted: the cheeks are black, the ears of a deep grey, with the tips of them distinguished by small tufts of black hair, as in the lynx. In the night "when all the beasts of the forest do move," this animal as well as others, is prowling after sustenance, and "when the sun ariseth" and "the lion getteth himself away to his den" both the black cat, and the jackal have been often found gnawing such carcasses as the lion is supposed to have fed upon the night before. These animals make, all night, a perpetual howling, yelping, and squalling noise, giving a correct idea, as it is related in scripture, of their "meeting together, and crying out in their desolate places."

The porcupine, is an animal common in Algeria. Instead of darting their quills when provoked, according to the old opinion, their usual method of defence is to recline themselves on one side, and upon the enemy's near approach, to rise up quickly, and gore him with the erected prickles upon the

other. The flesh of this animal, when fat and young, is very well tasted, and in great esteem.

The jird, and the jerboa, are two little, harmless animals which burrow in the earth. They chiefly frequent the Sahara; the latter may frequently be seen in the plains of Oran. Each of them is about the size of a rat, having their bellies white, but the rest of their bodies of a sorrel color. The ears also of them both, are round and hollow, in some, long, and in others short, agreeing with the rabbit in the order of their fore teeth, and in the bristles of their cheeks, though they differ in other respects. For the head of the jird is rather pointed, and covered all over with fur: whereas the nostrils of the jerboa are flat and naked, lying nearly in the same plain with the mouth. All the legs of the jird are nearly of the same length, with five toes to each: whereas the fore feet of the jerboa are very short and armed with only three. The hinder feet are nearly of the same length as the body, with each of them four toes, besides two spurs, as the smaller ones may be called, that are placed more than an inch above them. The tail of the jird though a little shorter than in the common rat, yet is better covered: while that of the jerboa is as long as its body, and of a yellowish color, with a black tuft near or upon the extremity. They are both good eating; and the latter, notwithstanding the great disproportion between the fore and hinder feet, runs, or rather

jumps along with extraordinary swiftness: the tail, which it carries for the most part erect, or occasionally reclined, contributing all the while to the regularity of its motion.

They are particularly fond of burrowing in the sand, where it is supported by the spreading roots of spartum, spurge-laurel, or other similar plants. Agreeably to this method of their burrowing in the ground, under the roots of plants, some cyrenaic medals exhibit small animals of this kind, under an umbellated plant, supposed to be the silphium.

That remarkable disproportion between the fore, and the hinder legs of the jerboa, and their habit of standing, or resting upon the latter, may induce the belief that it is the two-footed rat which Herodotus and other authors describe as existing in these countries, particularly in the province of Silphium.

Besides the animals before mentioned, Algeria (in common with the Barbary states) produces the bear, or dabh, according to the natives; the ape, or sheddy; the Ichneumon, or Tezerdea; the fox, or thaleb; the ferret, or nimse; and the weasel, or fert-el-heile. The mole, also, the rabbit, the hare, and the wild boar, are every where very numerous. The last of these, the chief prey and food of the lion, has sometimes been known to defend itself with so much courage and obstinacy, that the victory has inclined to neither side, the carcasses of them both

having been found lying by one another, torn and mangled.

INSECTS—REPTILES.

One of the principal branches of commerce of Algeria is the honey, and wax, which the country produces. A distinguished modern naturalist, has observed in this district, six different kinds of bees. What is commonly called the honey bee, exists in a wild state, and forms its nest in the hollows of trees and rocks. This honey has a delicious flavour. As to the bees which the natives keep in hives, it is astonishing the quantity of honey and wax they obtain.

In these climates as in all hot countries, the mosquitoes fly in large swarms; they are, at times, very troublesome, particularly during the night—and here, I may say with a certain writer, that "I have seen mosquitoes, many of which would weigh a pound, and moreover I have seen them run up trees and bark."

But the principal insect is the locust: to that species which are called mantes by the naturalists, must be added one, three inches long, of a brown color, with the fore legs armed with strong, horny claws. There is another of the same size of the cucullated kind, which has the upper wings streaked with a light green, and the membranaceous ones

finely varied with flesh brown and scarlet colors; besides a third species, two inches long, with elegant green wings. But the chief characteristics of the latter, are two antennae, which project, like a couple of feathers, from the forehead.

The mantes are not gregarious, but the locusts, properly so called, are sometimes so beyond expression.

Osorius tells us, that in the year of the world, three thousand eight hundred, Africa was infested with a multitude of locusts. After having eaten up everything that was green, they flew off and were drowned in the sea, where they caused a stench equal to the putrifying carcasses of one hundred thousand men; and nearer our own time a vessel sailing before a high wind, was suddenly stopped by an an immense number of locusts, which had just been engulphed in the sea.

A very intelligent eye witness describes the devastations of these insects in Algeria as follows :—

" Their first appearance was in the latter end of March, when the wind had been southerly for some time. In the beginning of April, their numbers were so greatly increased, that in the heat of the day, they formed themselves into large swarms, that appeared like clouds, and darkened the sun. In the middle of May they began to disappear, retiring into the plains to deposit their eggs. In June, the young brood began to make their appearance,

forming many compact bodies of several hundred yards square, which afterwards marching forwards, climbed the trees, walls, and houses, eating everything that was green in their way. The inhabitants, to stop their progress, laid trenches all over their fields and gardens, which they filled with water. Some placed large quantities of heath, stubble, and similar combustible matter in rows, and set them on fire on the approach of the locusts. But all this was to no purpose; for the trenches were quickly filled up, and the fires put out by the great numbers of swarms that succeeded each other. A day or two after one of these was in motion, others that were just hatched came to glean after them, gnawing off the young branches and the very bark of the trees. Having lived nearly a month in this manner, they arrived at their full growth, and threw off their worm-like state, by casting their skins. To prepare themselves for this change, they fixed their hinder part to some bush or twig, or corner of a stone, when immediately, by an undulating motion, used on this occasion, their heads would first appear, and soon after, the rest of their bodies. The whole transformation was performed in seven or eight minutes, after which they remained for a little while in a languishing condition; but as soon as the sun and air had hardened their wings, and dried up the moisture that remained after casting off their previous sloughs, they returned to their former

greediness with an addition both of strength and agility. But they did not long continue in this state before they were entirely dispersed. After laying their eggs, they directed their course northward, and probably perished in the sea. In this country, however, the amazing fertility of the soil, and warmness of the climate, generally render the depredation of these insects of little consequence; and besides that many circumstances concur to diminish their number. Though naturally herbivorous, they often fight with each other, and the victor devours the vanquished. They are the prey, too, of serpents, lizards, frogs, and the carnivorous birds. They have been found in the stomachs of the eagle and different kinds of owls. They are also used as food by the Moors, who go to hunt them, fry them in oil or butter, and sell them in the markets."

Some locusts were seen in different parts of Great Britain, in the year 1748, and great mischief was apprehended; but happily for us, the coldness of our climate, and the humidity of the soil are very unfavorable to their production, so that as they are only animals of a year's continuance, they all perished without leaving a young generation to succeed them.

The most curious species of the butterfly kind, is nearly four inches from the tip of one wing to that of the other, and very beautifully streaked all over

with a rather dark red and yellow. But the edges of the lower wings are to be excepted, which, being indented, and ending in a narrow strip, or lappet, of an inch long, are very elegantly bordered with yellow. Near the tail there is a spot of a carnation colour.

The rarest species of the libellæ, or adderbolt, is one of three inches and a half long, broad tailed, of a rusty colour, with bright, spotted wings. There is another of the same size, but of a more cylindrical body differing little in colour from the common locust.

The least common of the beetles is a species with one horn, of the colour and size of a chesnut. The head is notched round, or indented, and the feet are broad like those of the gryllo-talpas. The lesser nasicornes are met with every where, as also a diversity of elastic beetles.

In the hotter months of the Summer, particularly from mid-day to the middle of the afternoon, the grasshopper makes a very shrill noise. It will perch upon a twig and make a sort of squalling, for, sometimes two or three hours, without ceasing. Surely the grasshopper of the Greeks must have produced different sounds, otherwise the finest orators of Homer, who are compared to them, must have exercised their voices like so many enraged scolds.

All these and other insects of Algeria are very

numerous. Butterflies, beetles, &c., &c., are in such variety, and so luxuriantly coloured, that it would be too tedious to enumerate them further.

The scorpion, or ackrab—Strabo says that the labourers of Numidia were obliged to work in boots, and to have the rest of the body covered with skins, to protect them from these noxious animals, and before going to bed they rubbed the feet of their bedsteads with garlic, and surrounded them with thorns of the paliurus, to keep them off.

Some species of scorpions are long and narrow; others are of a rounder shape, and larger, with tails consisting of six joints. Those to the northward of Mount Atlas, are not very hurtful; for the sting being only attended with a slight fever, the application of a little Venice treacle, quickly assuages the pain. But the scorpions of Gaetulia and most other parts of the Sahara, as they are generally larger and of a darker colour, so their venom is proportionably malignant, and frequently attended with death. Bosman assures us that along the Gold Coast the scorpions are often found larger than lobsters, and that their sting is inevitably fatal.

Maupertius put about one hundred into a box with a glass lid, in order that he might observe them; they had scarcely come into contact, when they began to exert all their rage in mutual destruction; there was one universal carnage, without

distinction of age or sex ; so that in a few days, there remained only fourteen, which had killed and devoured the rest.

A female scorpion enclosed in a glass, by the same naturalist, gave birth to several young ones, whom she devoured as fast as they were born ; one only of the number escaped destruction, by taking refuge on the back of its parent, and who soon after revenged the cause of its brethren, by killing the old one in its turn.

Of the same virulent nature as the scorpion is the bite of the boola-kan, a phalangium of the Sahara, the rhax, probably of these parts. It is computed that twenty or thirty persons are killed annually by the scorpion and leffah.

The method of curing the bite or sting of these venomous creatures, is, either immediately to burn, or to make a deep incision upon the wounded part, or else to cut out the contiguous flesh. Sometimes they bury the patient up to the head in the hot, burning sands, or else in pits, dug and heated for the purpose, in order, no doubt, to obtain a copious perspiration.

Among the oviparous quadrupeds of Algeria are the land and water tortoise, though neither of them are peculiar to this country. The former, which hides itself during the winter months, is very palatable food, but the latter, which has a flatter body, is very unwholesome.

The taitah, or bouiah, as they call the chamelion. may be discerned, by a good eye, upon most hedges, The tongue, which it darts upon flies and insects with surprising swiftness, retaining them afterwards by a glutinous matter secreted upon the tip of it, is four inches long, and shaped like a small pestle. The Moors and Arabs, after they have dried the skin of the taitah, suspend it upon their bosoms to prevent the influence of the evil eye.

The warral or guaral, is a lizard, which, according to Leo, is sometimes thirty inches long ; it is usually of a bright, reddish color, with dark spots.

The dab, another lizard, noticed also by Leo, agrees nearly in shape, and in the hard, pointed annuli or scales of the tail, with the caudiverbera.

The Zermoumeah is as frequent in the highways and hedges, as the common green lizard. It is a very slender, elegant animal, with a long taper tail of a light brown color, beautifully striated with yellow streaks.

The skink or scincus, frequently hides itself under flat stones, or in the holes of old walls, and ruins. In the same situation (though they often come into the houses, and crawl over the beds) is found the nije-daimah or bookashash, which is of a dark, gloomy color, seven or eight inches long, with a flat head and body, and with the tail like the dab's.

Not to mention the slo-worm, and the snake, which are common, the most remarkable species of

serpents, are the thaibanne, which may be Lucan's thebanus ophites, provided thebanus was an appellative, and not the proper name of the serpent; some of them are three or four yards long, and as it is by far the largest serpent in this country, or Barbary, it will so far answer to the hæmorrhous, to which Lucan has given the name of ingens; the others which he describes being probably much smaller, and of the viper size. Purses are sometimes made of the skin of the thaibanne, which are more than four inches wide.

The Zurreike, another serpent of the Sahara, is usually about fifteen inches long. It is of a slender body, and being remarkable, as the name (from Zurak jaculari) implies, for darting itself along with great swiftness, may, perhaps, be one of Lucan's jaculi volueres.

But the most common as well as malignant of this tribe, is the leffah, which, like our viper or adder, is of a less uniform turn of body than the zurreike, and seldom exceeds a foot in length. It is not always of the same color, but varies a little according to the quality of the earth, sand, or rocks, where it is found. The torrida dipsas, answers very well both to the name and to the quality of the leffah, which is so called from *leffah*, urere, *to burn*.

THE FISH.

The coast of Algeria abounds with fish, and the

fishery is very productive. Vessels are frequently surrounded with bonitoes. There are also several flying fish, which often make a flight of several hundred yards without touching the water: besides these, there are hammer-headed sharks, and the phoca, a kind of sea wolf; the latter are very common on this coast, and are frequently thrown by the waves to so great a distance upon the sands, that they cannot return, and are easily taken, when their cries are hideous.

The fish in these seas and rivers, are nearly the same as those on the opposite side of the Mediterranean.

The barbel, and eel, is common to most of the Algerian rivers. The barbel has two appendages on the lower jaw. In the warm fountains at Capsa, there are beautiful, small perch, with chequered fins, and turned up noses; but they are coarse and of no delicate flavour, though to be considered as a curiosity, in living so far from the sea; and in being the only fish appertaining to the numerous rivulets of these inland parts of Africa. The fishermen sometimes find, in drawing and clearing their nets, the penna marina or sea feather, which at night is so luminous, as to afford light enough to discover the quantity and size of the fish that are enclosed along with it in the same net. Large shoals are frequently seen, of a small, circular, flat polypus, which have a thin, semicircular ridge obliquely across their backs. They are entirely surrounded with

small suckers, and are eagerly pursued by tunnies and porpoises, the latter frequently swimming in shoals. A great many years ago, an orcha or toothed whale, sixty feet long, was stranded under the walls of Algiers; this was regarded as so extraordinary a circumstance that the Algerines were apprehensive it portended them some very dreadful calamity.

Among the crustaceous fish of Algeria is the lobster, but it is by no means plentiful, whereas shrimps, and prawns, a small, thin shelled crab, the locusta, commonly called the long oyster, together with the squilla lata or "sea cray fish" are every day brought to the markets. These are preferred to the lobster for firmness and delicacy of flavour.

The echini, or sea eggs, are more remarkable for their number than their variety.

Neither are the shell fish various or plentiful. The excuviæ of a few species of whilks, and flithers, of the sea ear, of the spondylus, and of a smooth, shallow chama, commonly lie upon the sea shore; while the greater whilks or buccinum, eight or ten inches in length, a long, narrow pectunculus, the concha veneris, a large, thin, ampullaceous whilk, with the long nosed muricated one, may be reckoned among the rarities,. But the Solitanna, which according to Varro contained forty-eight quarts, would be undoubtedly the greatest curiosity, pro-

vided it still continued to be a native of these seas.

BIRDS.

THE ostrich, a native of Africa only, has a bill rather conical and wings so short as to be unfit for flying: the thighs and sides of the body are naked: the feet are formed for running, having two toes, one only of which is furnished with a nail. The ostrich is the largest of all birds, its general height is from six to eight feet. The head and bill are something like those of a duck, and the neck like those of a swan, only much longer: the legs and thighs resemble those of a hen. Although usually seven feet high from the top of the head to the ground, from the back it is only four. From the top of the head to the extremity of the tail, when the neck is stretched out in a right line, it is seven feet long, the tail being one seventh of this length. One of the wings without the feathers is a foot and a half long: and being stretched out with the feathers is three feet.

Two ostriches were shewn in London in the year 1750, the male was ten feet high, and weighed three hundred weight and a quarter.

The eggs of these birds are sometimes more than five inches in diameter, and weigh above fifteen pounds. They have a very hard shell, and nearly

resemble a crocodile's, except that those of the latter are less and rounder.

The time for laying, depends on the climate where the animal is bred. In the northern part of Africa, this season is about the beginning of July: in the south, it is about the latter end of December. These birds are very prolific, and lay generally from forty to fifty eggs at once. It has been commonly reported, that the female deposits them in the sand, and covering them up, leaves them to be hatched by by the heat of the climate, and then permits the young to shift for themselves. Very little of this however is true: no bird has a stronger affection for her young than the ostrich, and none watch their eggs with greater assiduity. It happens, indeed in the hot climates, that there is less necessity for the continual incubation of the female; and she more frequently leaves her eggs, which are in no danger of being chilled by the weather: but though she sometimes forsakes them by day, she always carefully broods over them by night, and often the male, and female, take this office in turns. Nor is it more true what is said of their forsaking their young after they are excluded the shell. On the contrary, the young ones are not even able to walk for several days after they are hatched, and during this time the old birds are very assiduous in supplying them with grass, and very careful to defend them from danger, which they will encounter themselves

in their defence. The young, when brought forth, are of an ash colour the first year, and are covered with feathers all over. But in time these feathers drop, and those parts which are covered assume a different and more becoming plumage.

The beauty of a part of this plumage, particularly the long feathers that compose the wings and tail, is the chief reason that man has been so active in pursuing this harmless bird to its deserts, and hunting it with no small degree of expense and labour. For this purpose, the Arabs train up their best and fleetest horses. As soon as the hunter comes within sight of his prey, he puts his horse into a gentle gallop, so as to keep the ostrich still in sight: yet not so as to terrify him from the plain into the mountains. Of all known animals the ostrich is by far the swiftest in running; upon observing himself, therefore, pursued at a distance, he runs at first but gently: either insensible to his danger, or sure of escaping. In this situation, he partly resembles a man at full speed: his wings, like two arms, keep working with a motion corresponding to that of his legs: and his fleetness would very soon take him out of sight of his pursuers: but unfortunately for him instead of going off in a direct line, he takes his course in circles: while the hunters still make a small course within, relieve each other, meet him at unexpected turns, and keep him thus still employed, still followed, for two or three days together. At

last exhausted with fatigue and famine, and finding all power of escape impossible, he endeavours to hide himself from those enemies he cannot avoid, and buries his head in the sand or the first thicket he meets. Sometimes, however, he attempts to face his pursuers: and though in general the most gentle animal in nature, when driven to desperation he defends himself with his beak, his wings, and his feet.

The karaburno, which may be added to the eagle kind, is of the same size as our buzzard: with a black bill, red iris, yellow, short feet, the back of an ash, or sordid blue color, the pinions of the wings black, and the belly and tail inclining to white.

The graab el sahara, or "crow of the desert." is rather larger than our raven: and from the redness of the feet and bill, may lay claim to the title of coracias major.

The emseesy or ox bird, is as large as the curlew. It is entirely of a milk white color, except the bill and the legs, which are of a fine red. It generally feeds after cattle in the meadows, which makes its flesh taste unpleasant, and corrupt soon. It resembles the crow in its habits, and in its shape.

The boo-onk, or long neck, is a description of bittern, rather smaller than the lapwing. The neck, the breast, and the belly are of a light yellow; but the back and the upper part of the wings, are of a jet black. The tail is short, the feathers of the

neck long, and streaked either with white or with a light yellow. The bill, which is three inches long, is green, and shaped like that of the stork : and the legs, which are short and slender, are of the same color. In walking and searching for food, it throws out its neck to the length of seven or eight inches, on account of which the Arabs call it boo-onk " the father of the neck," or the " long neck."

The burourou, one of the larger species of the horned owl, is spotted like the Norwegian. It generally frequents the desert, like the graab el sahara : but when it appears to the northward, among the towns and villages, it is considered to portend some dreadfully, infectious distemper. When the plague has visited Algiers, several of these birds would hover about and alight upon the houses, particularly where the inhabitants were infected ; drawn there no doubt by the contagious smell ; but as soon as the distemper was over, they disappeared, and retired again into the Sahara. A curious proof of the virulence of the miasmata in plague cases, and rather against the non-contagionists.

The shaga-rag is of the size and shape of a jay, though with a smaller bill, and shorter legs. The back is inclining to brown ; the head, neck, and belly of a light green ; and upon the wings and tail there are several spots and circles of a deep blue. It makes a squalling noise, and builds in the banks of the Shelliff, Booberak, and other rivers. "

The houbaara, or houbaary, is of the size of a capon, but with a longer body. It feeds upon shrubs and insects, like the graab el sahara, and frequents, in a similar manner, the desert. This bird is of a light dun, or yellowish colour, speckled all over with small brown marks, shaped like a loop, while the larger feathers of the wings are black, with each of them a white spot near the middle. The feathers of the neck are whitish, with black streaks; but are chiefly remarkable for their length and for being erected, as in the ruff, whenever it is attacked or provoked. The bill is flat like the starling's, nearly an inch and a half long, and the legs agree in shape and in wanting the hinder toe, with the bustard's. The gall, and the contents of the stomach are in general esteem, for sore eyes, and have, in consequence, been sold at a high price. It is a curious sight to see the houbaara in its variety of flights and stratagems in order to escape when it is pursued by the hawk.

The rhaad, or saf-saf, which is a granivorous and gregarious bird, wants the hinder toe. There are two species of it: the smaller being of the size of an ordinary pullet, whereas the larger is nearly the size of the houbaara, and differs, also, from the lesser, in having a black head, with a tuft of dark blue feathers immediately below it. The belly of both species is white; the back and the wings are of a buff colour, spotted with brown; the tail is lighter,

and marked all along with black, transverse streaks. The beak, and the legs are stronger, than in birds of the partridge kind. Rhaad, which denotes thunder, in the language of this country, is supposed to be a name that has been given to it, from the noise that it makes in springing from the ground, as saf-saf, the other name, very naturally expresses the beating of the air when it is upon the wing.

The kittawiah, or African lagopus, is another bird of the gregarious and granivorous kind, with short, feathered feet, which also want the hinder toe. It frequents the most barren, as the rhaad does the more fertile parts of these countries, and is in its size and habits like the dove. The back, or upper part of it is of a livid colour, with dark spots ; the belly is nearly black, and upon the throat, there is the figure of a crescent, of a beautiful yellow. Each feather in the tail is tipped with a white spot, while that in the middle is long and pointed as in the merop's. This beautiful bird like the rhaad, is red upon the breast, and white in the legs, and with which it agrees further in its flesh being of an agreeable taste and easily digested.

The Barbary partridge is the same with the greater, or red legged species. Besides the quail, common to most countries, there is one here of a lighter colour, which wants the hinder toe. Both kind are birds of passage, as is also

the woodcock, which makes its first appearance in October, and continues till the March following, as in Europe. The Africans call the latter (from the size, probably, of its head) "the ass of the partridges."

Besides, such of the web-footed water fowl as are common in England, there are several other species, beautifully distinguished by their differently figured bills and plumage, but which it would be too tedious to enumerate. They are all of them called by the general name of "brak," which word some naturalists have made to denote a particular species only of the duck kind, contrary to the received acceptation of it in this country, where it is used for the family in general.

Among the smaller birds, may be placed a species of the thrush, not inferior to the American birds in the richness of its plumage. The head, neck, and back, are of a fine, light green: the wings of the color of the lark: the breast white, and spotted like that of the thrush: the hinder part of a beautiful yellow and the extremity of the feathers upon the tail and wings, tipped with the same color. Excepting the feet, which are shorter and stronger, it agrees in the shape of its body and bill with the thrush. This bird is not very common, and appears only in the summer months when figs are in season.

To the small, thick billed birds, may be added the capsa sparrow, which is as large as the common

house sparrow, and as often seen upon the houses in the date villages, to the westward of the lake of Marks, as the common sparrow is in other places. It is the color of a lark, except upon the breast, which is rather lighter and shines like the pigeon's. This bird has an exceedingly sweet and melodious note. very superior to that of the canary, or even the nightingale. Several attempts have been made to bring it to the northward ; but it was always found to be of so delicate and peculiar a nature, that, upon changing the climate, it languished and pined away.

VEGETABLE PRODUCTIONS.

In Algeria, the productions of the tropical countries grow by the side of the plants of southern Europe ; and I may say that there is scarcely any vegetable useful to man which does not prosper under this beautiful sky.

The spontaneousness, and exuberant vitality of vegetable growth in French Africa, is most striking. The trees of Europe, and America, transplanted to this soil, propagate without culture as natural productions.

Among those which are indigenous, I will first mention the mastic, palm, arbute or strawberry tree, furze, rose-bay a species of laurel, myrtle, agave or aloe, &c. Most of these form high thickets, some-

times upon the plains, and almost always upon the sides of the mountains and the hills on the coast. The Atlas is covered with them, and towards the upper parts there are a great many cork trees, oaks with acorns, white poplars, junipers, and occasionally the cedar of Lebanon.

The arbute bears a fruit very agreeable to the taste, it is similar in color and form to the strawberry but much larger. The myrtle produces a berry which is black when ripe and slightly bitter.

The olive, walnut, jujeb, bitter orange, citron, pomegranate, cactus, vine, and wormwood, are also among the spontaneous productions of the soil; they grow upon the mountains, in the valleys, and the fields. The orange and citron trees are exceedingly beautiful, and their flowers and fruits diffuse, in all seasons, a delicious perfume. On the northern side of the Atlas, at an elevation of two thousand feet, oranges grow mixed with the aloe and cactus. On the southern side, figs are found at an elevation of thirteen hundred feet; and the wild pomegranate is so productive in the environs of Algiers, that its fruits, when perfectly ripe, are sold at six for a halfpenny.

The gardens, fields, and houses, in the environs of the cities and in the country, are picturesquely surrounded with hedges, of cactus and aloes. The cactus produces a fruit called the barbary fig, which is very refreshing, and agreeable to the taste, and upon which the Arabs partly live during six months

in the year; the stems, stript of their numerous thorns, and cut into pieces are eaten by the poor, when vegetables are scarce. The leaves, when planted, soon take root, and grow very fast. Of the leaf of the aloe they make a kind of paper, and of the fibres a thread for weaving, and cords for traces.

The palm tree, not near so common as other fruit trees, is also found on the hills, in the valleys, and in the midst of thickets; it is propagated chiefly from young shoots, taken from the roots of full grown trees, which, if well transplanted and taken care of, will yield fruit in its sixth, or seventh year: whereas, those that are raised from the kernels do not bear till about their sixteenth. This tree arrives at its greatest vigour about thirty years after transplanting, and continues so seventy years afterwards, bearing, yearly, fifteen or twenty clusters of dates, each of the clusters weighing fifteen or twenty pounds, being altogether between three and four hundred pounds weight of fruit. After this period, it begins gradually to decline and usually falls about the latter end of its second century.

The palm requires no other culture and attendance than to be well watered once in four, or five days, and to have a few of the lower boughs lopt off, whenever they begin to droop or wither. Those, whose stumps, in being thus gradually left upon the trunk, serve, like so many rounds of a ladder, to climb up the

tree, either to fecundate it, to lop it, or to gather the fruit, are quickly supplied with others, which gradually hang down from the top or crown, contributing not only to the regular and uniform growth of this tall, knotless, beautiful tree, but also to its perpetual and most delightful verdure.

The dates ripen only in the south and in the Blaid el jered, called the land of dates; but no doubt they might be brought to perfection in the north of Algeria, if properly attended to. The fruit of the dwarf palm is less esteemed although eaten by the natives; the heart of this plant is extremely tender when young, and much sought after for the table.

The palma christi, sugar cane, cotton tree, cactus without thorns, madder, flax and alhenna grow in a wild state; the latter is a beautiful odoriferous plant, and grows generally ten or twelve feet high, produces small flowers in clusters, which yield a most grateful smell like camphor. It is with the leaves of this plant, dried and powdered, that all African women, who can afford it, form a dye with which they tinge their lips, hair, hands and feet, of a tawny saffron color.

The palma christi, from which castor oil is obtained is of speedy growth, arriving at its full heighth of from sixteen to twenty feet in one year.

The cactus without thorns is met with in all parts of Algeria. In America this plant is the common food of the cochineal insect.

Several vegetables common in England, grow here naturally, on the borders of brooks, and under walls &c., such as celery, asparagus, carrots, and parsnips.

Numerous odoriferous shrubs, myrtles, lavender, barbary and spurge laurel &c., cover the country and fill the air with the most agreeable perfumes, while cactuses, pomegranates and wild roses, ornament the hedges and thickets. The rose laurel forms every where, upon the banks of the rivers, and brooks, a purple border which marks the sinuosities of their course. During the winter, instead of a covering of snow, the hills are clothed with tulips, anemonies, and ranunculuses.

The Spring brings the star of Bethlehem, asphodel, iris, and yellow lupine, which form large fields: and with the autumn appears the squill and a number of small flowers of the same family, and of all colors.

I have not yet spoken of the different kinds of forest trees of Algeria. The evergreen oak, olive, elm, ash, cork, and pine. The woods of Mazafran between Coleah and Algiers, of El Mazerah between the plain of Ceira and Mostaganem; of Stidia or Macta, between Mazagran and the mouth of the Habrah, and those of Wed el ahral and Wed nougah, deserve to be mentioned for their extent and beauty. The forests of Muley Ishmael and Mislah in the province of Oran, are very ex-

tensive and flourishing; and there are also magnificent forests between Boujeiah and the Cape of Iron, and bordering the road to Bone, near Calle, above the hills of that city, consisting of about fifty thousand acres of beautiful forests intersected with lakes, and prairies, and stocked with cork, elm, ash, and gall bearing oak tree.

These forests could furnish cork sufficient for the consumption of all Europe.

Such is the vegetation which spontaneously grows with unexampled fecundity upon the maritime regions of the Atlas. I will now describe the cultivated productions, which are nearly the same as those which grow in a wild state.

The olive, walnut, hazel, almond, jujeb, white and black fig, pomegranate, carob, banana, (called Adam's fig tree,) palm, sweet and bitter orange, and the melon and other kinds of citrons; vine, red mulberry and caper bush, together with almost all the fruit trees common in England. such as the apple, plum, apricot, cherry &c., stock the fields, gardens and orchards of Algeria.

The neglected state of agriculture among the Arabs, has been the cause of some of these trees degenerating, but most of them are in a flourishing state.

Apricots are fit to gather in May; but the sashee, or masculine apricot, is a little later, though much preferable, as it never occasions surfeits. Whereas

the common apricot causes a variety of fevers and dysenteries, and is called by the natives "the killer of christians."

Nectarines and peaches are ripe towards the middle of July, the former being much larger than ours, and of a better taste; whilst the latter, besides their excellent flavour, commonly weigh ten ounces.

In June there are two or three sorts of plums and cherries, which are neither beautiful nor good. However, the cherry was formerly in so much esteem that it was called, as it is at present, "hab el melleck," that is "the berry of the king,"

Fruit is very cheap in all parts of Algeria; of course the price varies with the season, but in the months of August and September, I have frequently bought at Algiers, which is by far the dearest town in the country, fine musk melons for twopence, water melons for two or three halfpence, grapes about a penny a pound, and eighteen or twenty Barbary figs for the same money, large pomegranates three or four for a penny, peaches about twopence a pound, and other fruits in proportion.

The plantation of oranges near Bleeda, and in the plain of Bone, are a most beautiful sight; and it is allowed that the oranges of Algiers are equal to those of Portugal, Malta and Candia, in size, flavour, and perfume. The almonds, pistachio nuts and grapes, are also of excellent quality, and form articles of considerable trade.

The neighbourhood of Bone has been long celebrated for the beauty of its jujebs. The finest figs of the north of Africa came formerly from Shershell; when fresh they supplied the markets of Tennis and Algiers, and when dried were sent to Constantina, Tunis, and all the cities of Barbary. Now, the best figs are gathered upon the Middle Atlas.

The cultivation of tobacco, is very extensive in Algeria; there are two sorts, the nicotiana tabacum, and the nicotiana rustica, the last is the most common, and the most esteemed. The tobacco af Algiers is remarkable for its rapid growth, vigorous vegetation, and the size of its leaves. With a better process of manufacture it would be equal to some of the best kind.

Flax, formerly so abundant in the district of Shershell, and alhenna, much cultivated at the foot of the Atlas mountains, may be reckoned among the most profitable productions of French Africa. The natives never have been able to extract much from their indigo, although the plants in this country are of an excellent quality, full of coloring matter, and produce two, or three crops annually.

Throughout the district, may be seen fields of corn (it is common to see one grain produce ten or fifteen stalks) maize and millet, particularly in the province of Constantina. The leaves of the latter are excellent forage for cattle, when the grass of the pastures is dried by extreme heat. Large fields

of rice grow in the plains between Algiers, and Oran.

All the plants used in Europe, as provender for cattle, grow here, sainfoin, lucerne, clover, and vetches, abound in the immense pasturages of the Mettijiah.

The kitchen gardens of the Moors, are not so well supplied as ours. Musk and water melons, cucumbers, pumpkins, onions, cabbages, long pepper and tomatos, are nearly all their vegetables. The French settlers grow large quantities of peas, lentils and beans, which flourish greatly, and produce eight crops a year, they are extensively consumed, particularly by the poor.

They begin to gather musk and water melons, about the latter end of June, the first of which are little superior in taste to our own, but the latter, for want of a sufficient heat, have never been raised to perfection in our northern climate. The water melon or angura, or pistacha, or dillah, as they call it, is admirably calculated for hot countries, as it affords a cool, refreshing juice, assuages thirst, mitigates feverish disorders and so compensates, in no small degree, for the excessive heats, not so much of these as of the more southern districts.

In January the trees begin to bud, having been deprived of leaves but a few weeks, and in the same month, corn, barley, sainfoin, and lucerne, clothe the fields with beautiful verdure, and abundant pasturage. In warm situations, the apple, citron, orange,

almond, and white heart cherry trees, are in blossom; and soon after, they gather in the gardens, strawberries, peas, asparagus, all sorts of salads, beet root, potatoes, turnips, carrots, and cauliflowers. In February the apricot blossoms, as also the jujeb, and cherry. The fig, flowers in March, and the pomegranate and myrtle in April; the vine in June, and some trees are loaded with flowers and fruit throughout the year.

In January the bananas are ripe, in April the almonds, in June the prickly pear or Barbary fig, the jujeb, and common fig; in July grapes, in August pomegranates, apples and pears; the apples and pears produce two crops, one in March, and the other in October. They reap barley and corn in the middle of June and in the beginning of July.

Almost all the vegetables grow to a very large size, under the influence of the sun of Algeria; fennel, carrots, and some other umbelliferous plants, are of gigantic proportions: the parsnip sometimes has leaves nine feet long, and quinces are occasionally the size of small gourds, cauliflowers are frequently more than a yard in diameter, and the leaves of a marshmallow the size of a plate. Grasses &c., grow to an astonishing size, and far from losing in quality what they gain in growth, are excellent for the nourishment of cattle,

The thickets, formed of dwarf palms, mastics, and thorn broom, grow to a height of two or three yards,

but however high these shrubs may be, the cactus or Barbary fig, is much higher. The orange, and citron trees, are very fine. The jujeb, olive, and carob trees are of extraordinary size.

The stems of the vines are singularly large, and the branches of grapes so enormous, that they cannot be contained in the common scales of the European shopkeepers.

Opium is grown in Algeria, and according to an examination made by a commission of the French academy in February 1844, it is found to be of good quality, and equally rich in morphine with that of the best varieties of Smyrna and India.

CLIMATE.

SITUATED in the hottest half of the temperate zone, but still far from the tropical, the State of Algiers owes to this position, as well as to the mountainous elevation of the soil, and to the neighbourhood of the sea, a temperate climate. The seasons succeed one another insensibly, and throughout the year the barometer shows all the revolutions of the weather in the space of one inch and three tenths, or from twenty nine inches and one tenth, to thirty inches four tenths.

During the months of March, April, May, and June, the air is very agreeable in the environs of Algiers, with rarely bad weather: then succeeds the

hot period which lasts till November; during this time the earth is arid, and parched, the springs dry up, and the country is scorched by the intense ardour of the sun. When I was at Algiers in 1843, my thermometer (a Farenheit) placed in *the shade* showed the temperature as follows.

August 28th, ½ past 5 p.m. 86—29th, 8 p.m. 83—30th, at one 95—31st, 5 94½.

September 3rd, ½ past 3, 92—4th, ½ past 2, 90½—6th, at 3, 93—7th, ½ past 1, 88—14, ½ past 3, 90—18th, ½ past 11, a.m. 88.

The months of December, January, and February, is the rainy season, with occasional fine days. The ordinary quantity of rain which falls yearly at Algiers, is, at a medium, twenty seven or twenty eight inches. Very little rain, if any, falls in this climate during the summer season, and in most parts of the Sahara, particularly in the Jereede, they have seldom any rain at all.

The plain of Mettijiah has frequently fogs in the morning, and occasionally they rise on the northern acclivity of the Little Atlas, but they never appear in the centre, or southern parts of the state.

The most frequent winds upon the coast of Algeria, are those from the north, and north-west; these prevail with the greatest force from November to April. The winds from the south, and south-east are not so frequent, and the most uncommon are those from the east and west.

The wind of the desert, the Khamsin of the regency, and the simoom of the Arabs, often spreads its malignant influence over the north of Africa. Its approach is known at Algiers by a kind of fog, which rises upon the Little Atlas, the heat then becomes almost insupportable, and the wind soon arrives from the desert. Men and animals, awakened and almost suffocated, are obliged to seek shelter. It rarely lasts more than twenty four hours, and is most frequent during the month of September. The inhabitants in order to generate fresh air, are obliged frequently to sprinkle the floors of their houses with water, or with vinegar, the latter is particularly refreshing.

The celebrated Bruce, who in his journey through the desert, suffered from this wind, thus describes it:

"At eleven o'clock, while we contemplated with pleasure the rugged top of Chiggre, to which we were fast approaching, and where we were to solace ourselves with plenty of good water, Idris our guide cried out, with a loud voice, "fall upon your faces, for here is the simoom." I saw from the south-east a haze come, in color like the purple part of the rainbow, but not so compressed or thick. It did not occupy twenty yards in breadth, and was about twelve feet high from the ground. It was a kind of blush upon the air, and it moved very rapidly; for I scarce could turn to fall upon the ground, with my head to the northward, when I plainly felt

the heat of its current upon my face. We all lay flat on the ground as if dead, till Idris told us it was blown over. The meteor or purple haze which I saw was indeed passed, but the light air that still blew was of a heat to threaten suffocation. For my part, I found distinctly in my breast, that I had imbibed a part of it, nor was I free from asthmatic sensation till I had been some months in Italy, at the baths of Poretta, nearly two years afterwards." Though the severity of this blast seems to have past over them almost instantaneously, it continued to blow, so as to exhaust them, till twenty minutes before five in the afternoon, lasting through all its stages nearly six hours, and leaving them in a state of the utmost despondency.

Storms are rare at Algiers, but when they do occur they are extremely violent; the air is charged with a great quantity of electricity, the lightning fills the atmosphere, and the thunder bursts with a terriffic and awful violence.

The great abundance of electricity in the atmosphere produces a variety of curious phœnomena. Some of these occur in Africa with an intensity unknown in Europe. On the eighth of May 1831, after sunset, the entire atmosphere appeared on fire, the thunder was continually rolling, and the lightning darted in every direction. On this evening there was seen at the tops of the numerous flag staffs of Algiers, and the neighbouring forts, white

lights in the form of "aigrettas," which remained during half an hour. Some scientific officers who were walking bare headed upon the terrace of fort Babazoun, were very much astonished to feel their hair standing an end, and to see similar "aigrettas," but smaller, on the heads of each of their comrades. When they raised their hands in the air, a similar light was seen at the end of each hand, which disappeared on taking them down. For further experiment these gentlemen had up, on the terrace, ten soldiers, upon whom this phœnomenon made its appearance at the same instant, and with an equal intensity. These officers and soldiers, experienced some nervous contractions in the limbs, together with a general lassitude, particularly in the legs.

Although the winter is not near so severe in Algeria as in England yet it is felt quite as much, perhaps, in the former country as in the latter, coming as it does after the intense heat of summer. When the thermometer falls below 45½ of Farenheit, which takes place during the prevalence of north and north west winds, there is a damp rawness in the air very piercing, and as all the houses are adapted for the summer season only, and there are no chimneys in the sitting rooms, the cold is felt with great severity. The Moors and Arabs support it as well, and perhaps better than the foreigners; the natives put on an additional clothing, sometimes two burnooses, but they always go bare-legged.

If we want to judge of the general temperature of the climate, by the vegetable productions, we cannot do better than read the following from Leo Africanus.

" In March, all the trees are covered with blossoms, and in April the fruit is formed. At the end of this month, and the beginning of May, the cherries are ripe. In the middle of May they gather the figs, and in some places they have ripe grapes in the middle of June. Pears, oranges, and plums, arrive at maturity in June and July. The autumnal figs, that is to say the second crop, ripen in August; but it is in September that the figs and peaches are the most abundant. At the end of August they dry a part of their grapes, to make raisins of, in the sun, the remainder they use for wine and wort, particularly in the province of Rifa. In October they collect the honey, pomegranates, and quinces; in November, olives, which they beat down with poles, although it is hurtful to the trees; but they are so high, that the fruit can not be reached with common ladders. There is a kind of large olive, unfit to make oil, which the inhabitants eat ripe."

" The spring is reckoned by the Africans, from the 15th of February to the 18th of May, and during this period the temperature is very mild. If no rain falls from the 25th of April to the 5th of May, they expect bad crops."

" Their summer lasts from the 19th of May to

the 16th of August, a period during which the air is extremely hot, and the sky constantly serene. If it should happen to rain in July or August, all the air is infected, which occasions pestilential fevers difficult to cure."

" They reckon Autumn from the 17th of August to the 16th of November. In August and September the heat begins to diminish. The period comprised between the 15th of August and the 15th of September, is called the oven of the year, because then the figs, quinces, and other fruits of the same kind ripen."

" The winter is from the 15th of November to the 14th of February. Cultivation is carried on in October upon the mountains, and in the plains at the end of November. The Africans reckon as the hottest part of the year, the forty days following the 12th of June, and the coldest, those commencing with the 12th of November."

But all these observations of Leo, are only applicable to the coasts, and will not apply to the large plains of the interior, particularly to those in the province of Constantina. At Algiers, where the mean temperature is about seventy of Farenheit, the dates ripen, but they are of inferior quality to those of the south of Africa.

At Melah, near Constantina, apples and pears (originally brought from the north of France, and the south of Germany) have an excellent flavour,

but they have degenerated upon the coast. At Medea, which is not so far from the sea as Constantina, cactuses, aloes, pomegranates, and oranges, had disappeared, but the French have recently re-introduced them.

Constantina is very cold in winter, and during that period the mountainous chain of Edough near Bone, is covered with snow, which also is seen upon a part of the Jurjurah, all the year. It is therefore not surprising that this province is preserved from the morbific influence of the heats which cause such ravages in the other parts of the Colony.

Between Calle and Bone, there are several large lakes which spread pestilential exhalations. The plain of Bone is low, sandy, boggy and partly under water. There were formerly canals to carry off the waters produced by the rains, but the carelessness of the Turks allowed them to get choked up by the sand and *débris* from the rocks which the torrents bring down; the waters therefore being deprived of those outlets, overflow the plain, and form marshes which create fevers. It was thus the ancient establishments of the French African Company called "the Bastion of France" was often depopulated by the annual mortality, which occurred till they removed to Calle.

The climate in the province of Oran, is healthy; it is hot, but the heat is not insupportable in con-

sequence of the periodical winds which blow during the summer. The causes which develop, elsewhere, intermitting fevers, often of a fatal character, do not exist in this province; but the sudden changes in the temperature, and the immoderate use of fruit and liquids, produce, without precaution, dangerous disorders.

I shall finish this short account of the climate with a literal translation of a couplet, containing a short description of spring, by an Arab poet, Abou Dahar, surnamed Ben el Khirary.

"The garden is decorated with pearls of dew: they render the flowers brilliant in the morning like radiant stars.

The hand of spring has dressed the earth, for our gratification, with an enamelled mantle of a thousand colors, reflecting liquid diamonds."

ALGIERS BEFORE THE FRENCH CONQUEST.

THE GOVERNMENT.

THE Dey of Algiers was chosen from the army; each order, even the most inferior, having an equal right and title to aspire to that dignity. Every bold and aspiring soldier, although taken, but yesterday, from the plough, might have been con-

sidered as the heir apparent to the throne, and with this further advantage, that he was under no necessity to wait till illness or old age had removed the existing ruler. It was enough that he could protect himself with the same scimitar, which, perhaps, he had had the hardihood to sheathe in the breast of his predecessor. The chief command, as it was in the declension of the Roman Empire, was open and exposed to every bold pretender. Very few of the Deys died in their beds, and even those could not attribute it to any superior regard and esteem which the army had for them in particular, but to their own superior good fortune in preventing an insurrection, by cutting off the conspirators before they could put their designs in execution.

The title of Dey signifies patron or uncle.

THE MILITIA.

In former times the number of Turks seldom exceeded five thousand, in 1826 they were reduced to less than four thousand, of whom a great number were "emerite" or superannuated.

At the same date, the entire military force of the Algerine government was about fifteen thousand men, comprising Turks, Cologlies, Arabs and a few other natives. The two former composed the infantry, and the two latter the cavalry.

The Cologlies were seldom called out except in

cases of emergency. They were excluded from the honor of being Dey, Aga of the Militia, and other considerable offices and employments.

Notwithstanding, the Arabs and other natives were kept in constant pay, and might be supposed to augment their number, yet all being hereditary enemies to the Turks, they were of little value as a safeguard and defence to the government. The method therefore of keeping this large and populous kingdom in obedience, was not so much by force of arms as by the observance of the old, political maxim of "Divide and command." For the principal viceroys were very watchful over the conduct of the Arabian tribes, who belonged to their several districts and jurisdictions: and as these were in continual jealousies and disputes with one another, the Beys had nothing more to do than keep up the ferment, and throw in, at proper times, new matter for contention. There were some clans of both Arabs and Kabyles, who, had their neighbours but observed a neutrality, would have been too much for the whole army of Algiers, notwithstanding each Turk valued himself on being a match for twenty of them. When therefore there was any misunderstanding, the viceroys played one tribe against another: and provided the quarrel proved equal, a few of the Turkish infantry seasonably thrown in (the Arabian cavalry were never able to withstand the Turkish foot,) were more than a balance for the enemy. By this continually

fomenting the divisions, which always subsisted among the Arabian chiefs, and exasperating one family against another, these few thousand Turks maintained their ground against all opposition.

To make up the deficiencies in the army, their cruizing vessels were usually sent out once in every five or six years to the Levant for recruits, which generally consisted of shepherds, outlaws, and persons of the lowest rank and condition. Mahomet Bashaw one of their Deys, who was shot dead in the streets by a party of soldiers, was not above acknowledging his extraction. In a dispute which he had with the deputy consul of the French nation; "My mother," said he "sold sheep's feet, and my father neat's tongues; but they would have been ashamed to expose to sale so worthless a tongue as thine."

Another of their Deys, who was killed in a similar manner, had been, a few years previous, an Egyptian herdsman.

Yet these recruits, after a little instruction from their fellow soldiers, and when they had obtained turbans to their heads, shoes to their feet, and a dagger in their girdles, soon began to assume airs of grandeur and expected to be saluted with the title of effendi, or "your grace:" and looked upon the most considerable citizens as their slaves, and the consuls of the allied nations as their inferiors.

The officers that commanded the army, were the

Aga, or general, thirty yiah bashees, or colonels, eight hundred bulluck bashees, or captains, and about half that number of oda bashees, or lieutenants. The method of arriving at these posts was not by money and interest, but by seniority: the oldest soldier being advanced upon the death of his lieutenant, and the lieutenant upon the death of his captain &c., though, by the Dey's permission, a younger soldier could purchase the rank of an older, the latter reducing himself in return. There was another method also of hastening the promotions: for the Aga was removed, as often as the soldiers were paid, which was every two months, and succeeded by the chiah, the eldest of the yiah bashees: by which a seat became vacant in the Dou-anne, which was immediately filled up by the eldest bulluck bashee: as he again was by the eldest oda bashee &c. The Aga after having passed through the whole course of his duty was thenceforth considered as emiritus.

A soldier of the Turkish militia when equipped for war, carried one or two pairs of pistols, and a scimitar, or yataghan, in a belt fastened round the waist, a dagger suspended over the breast, a long musket over the shoulder, and a cartridge box. Those who could afford it had all their arms beautifully ornamented.

The belt just mentioned, in which they carried their arms, consisted of a very broad piece of leather fixed to a strap, which buckled round the body. I

have one, together with a cartridge box, which belonged to a Turkish soldier, who was killed at the attack on the fort of the Emperor, by the French in 1830. The belt is very curiously worked with different colored leathers fancifully cut, the cartridge box is rudely embroidered with silver thread, and stained with blood.

MARINE AND CORSAIRS.

It was the activity, and audacity of the Algerines, that enabled them to become the terror of the commercial nations of Europe, but within the present century, their navy had fallen from the rank which it formerly held. For two centuries it equalled that of the most powerful states, but in 1830, at the time of the French conquest, it was reduced, by successive losses, to a few vessels of little value.

When Lord Exmouth destroyed their fleet in 1816, it consisted of four frigates, mounting from forty to fifty guns, and one of thirty eight; four corvettes of from twenty to thirty guns, and twelve brigs and geolettes. There were besides thirty shalloops, carrying on their prows twelve and twenty-four pounders, which were employed in chasing vessels which appeared too near the coast. All this force having been destroyed in that war, they bought, or rapidly constructed, a number of small vessels. The Porte,

Morocco, and Tripoli, aided them to repair this disaster, and a few years after they were capable of recommencing their piracies. They even dispatched two frigates to assist the Sultan in the war against the Greeks, but these frigates, being chased by two French ships into the port of Alexandria, were sold by their own crews to obtain subsistence. The French blockade from 1827 to 1830, completed the ruin of their marine.

The docks of Algiers were always well furnished with timber, obtained from the nations of the north of Europe, and with all other materials necessary to fit out, and arm vessels of war. The government always maintained a body of three thousand sailors, but when necessary to prepare any armament, it could raise six thousand. No people could excel them in activity, but their sailors were very ignorant of naval tactics; in their engagements they only fired "round shot," never case shot &c. The crews were unacquainted with the chart, and compass, and therefore in distant expeditions they always took Christian slaves to pilot them.

The officers, and crews of their ships, together with the division of their prizes was as follows:—

The Aga, or commander of the soldiery, had three shares in a prize.

The Rais, or captain, shared only as an owner.

The first soute rais, or lieutenant had three shares.

The Hoja or clerk, three shares.

The master gunner, three shares.

The Vekilard, or steward, three shares.

Three mates, three gunners' mates, eight quarter masters, two shares each.

The Christian slaves, who were always very numerous, acted as petty officers, and seamen, and had each a share and a half, two or three, according to their abilities and behaviour.

The above mentioned officers were all Turks or Cologlies. They never associated with the Moors, who, together with the slaves, could not presume to come upon the quarter deck, or into the gun room, unless sent for by the captain or some Turk.

The commissioned officers were always appointed at the fitting out of the ship, but as to the subalterns, they were generally taken from among those who had served the longest, and when the ship was under sail.

As every one was admitted, the ships were more or less crowded according to the captain's character, so that he was always ignorant of his complement till he was at sea, and the clerk had made out the list. The Turks used their small arms, and pointed the cannon mnder the direction of the Aga.

When prizes were frequent, the captains were sometimes obliged to turn many hands on shore, before they sailed, the ship being over manned, keeping all the Turks, and sending away the Moors, as they

happened to find them, without any choice or examination.

A very remarkable circumstance was, that if there were any passengers, of whatever nation or religion, on board an Algerine ship, at the taking of a prize, they were entitled to a share; from a notion, that possibly, by an unknown direction of Providence, the success was owing to these passengers.

If a corsair had taken a prize of any value, he returned home with her in tow. If she was considerable, the christians were turned over on board his ship, and their places were supplied by a mate, with a proper number of Moors under him to carry her to Algiers. But if the prize was not worth that trouble, the christians were brought on board, the vessel unrigged, plundered, and set on fire; when a corsair appeared in sight, his success was easily known, for if it were fine weather he always had his prize in tow, and continued firing guns till he came within the harbour, and afterwards till night, if it were a rich one. The nation of the prize was also known, for the corsair always made her ensign his jack.

Some were so elevated at taking a rich prize, that they kept continually firing guns, although out of sight of any land, which ostentation sometimes cost them dear, by bringing upon them a superior enemy.

When arrived in the road, the rais of the

navy, went on board to make enquiries, and take an account of the slaves, and cargo, of which he immediately made a report to the Dey.

The captain having secured his ship in the harbour, caused all the slaves to be brought to the Dey's palace, and the foreign consuls were sent for to enquire if there were any slaves of their nation; if there were any, they were produced, and the consul asked them whether they were only passengers or actually part of the ship's company, for upon making it appear that they were passengers, they were delivered up to the consul, but if they belonged to the ship or were taken in arms, their destiny was slavery.

The Dey, having ordered all the slaves to be drawn up, had the choice of every eighth person, and consequently took the most valuable as to rank, person, or abilities, particularly the carpenters. His number was immediately sent away to the bagnios of the Deylic, and the others were shared among the owners and crew.

When a captain was preparing for a cruise, he asked the Dey's permission, which was always granted, unless his ship was immediately wanted for the service of the government. Having obtained leave, the captain, assisted by his own slaves and those of the other owners, fitted out the ship, on board of which the slaves of several private persons were sent, in order to share in the prizes, a great

part of which, however, was deducted for the use of their masters. When the ship was completely rigged, and provisions for two months, or in an extraordinary case, for three, were put on board; these consisted generally of biscuit, a little rice and water. After which, the captain hoisted his ensign, and fired a gun, which was a signal for sailing next day, that any who were inclined to go the cruise might go on board, whether Turks or Moors, for none were refused. Every captain had some Turkish followers who endeavoured to engage others, because their principal strength was in these Turks, the Moors being badly armed, and quite ignorant of sea affairs.

Every Turk carried his musket, sabre and blanket, which was all their baggage. No beds, or chests, were allowed on board. The Moors usually had only their hykes which served them both for dress and blanket to sleep in. They were very dirty, ignorant and cowardly. All their duties, in action, were to run the guns out, assist the gunners, and to stand to the rigging upon deck; the christian slaves and Turks, being placed in the tops and other places aloft.

Each ship carried an Imam, who fulfilled the same functions as upon land, in calling them to prayer at the same hour, and in the accustomed manner.

Their cruises were the Mediterranean, Cadiz, La-

gos, the Capes of St. Vincent, le Roque, and Finistere, the Canaries, Madeiras, and Azores.

Some have gone as far as Newfoundland, and it is said, that others have ventured to take ships in the Texel.

When any of their enemies' ships were cruising against them in the Mediterranean, they confined themselves to the coast of Portugal and the Canary islands.

At the time of the French conquest in 1830, their entire navy consisted of two frigates, in bad condition; seven brigs, and xebecks, besides a flotilla, composed of thirty two shalloops; this flotilla was intended to draw up in a line before the marine forts, and under the protection of their cannon, to prevent the approach, if possible, of vessels of war, which might attempt to bear down upon the forts.

RELIGION.

The Califs, successors to the prophet, united their temporal and spiritual power, they were at the same time, pontiffs, judges, and doctors of the law. As it was impossible to exercise these prerogatives themselves throughout their extensive empire, they established vicars. Their order bore the name of the college of the Ool-ama (alim singular) or learned men who were divided into three classes, the Imams,

or ministers of religion, Muftis, or doctors of law and the Kadys or judges.

The simplest ceremonies of the mussulman worship, take place in the mosques which are called Mesg-jid; these consist of five daily prayers, and the reading of a portion of the Koran, which is so divided as to be read through monthly. The khotba, the profession of faith, and prayer, is recited every Friday at noon, before the sermon.

The Mesg-jid are always built in, or adjoining, cities or towns, never in the country, they are generally consecrated by sovereigns. The Khotba cannot be recited in the establishments of an inferior order (chapels or oratories) of which the number is considerable, raised by the piety of private individuals.

The Oolama, consecrated to the service of religion, are divided into four classes, which are as follows.—

The Shecks, whose title corresponds to the latin word senior, and to the Jewish elder. It is habitually given to the preachers at the mosques. The mufti, and even the kady, takes this title, as they also can perform the functions. The shecks, in their exhortations on Fridays are frequently carried away by their religious zeal, they will sometimes attack men in power, and even the sovereign.

The Khatebs, who preside at the solemn prayer on Fridays, and recite the khotba.

The Imams, who assist at the daily prayers,

excepting on Fridays, and read a portion of the Koran. The chief Imam assists at circumcisions, marriages and funerals.

The Muedins, vulgarly called muezzins, who call the believers to the five daily prayers from the tops of the minarets.

There are also some subordinate keepers and servants of the mosques whose number depends on the riches of the temple.

The Mufti, is at the head of all. At Algiers, where there are two dignitaries of this rank, the preeminence is given to the mufti of the sect of Malekite.

In Algiers as in all Mahometan countries, the expences of religion, comprehending the salaries of the ministers, the support of the temples &c. are paid for out of the proceeds of estates, belonging to the mosques, or oratories, in virtue of donations &c., made by the founders, or others, from motives of piety. The Imams receive also various fees.

There is no public, Mahometan worship, out of the cities, on account of the absence of mosques. The people are left to the care of the Marabbutts (devoted) or saints, of whom there are three orders called santones, cavalists, and sunaquites.

The santones are under different rules, some wear only rags : some go about naked, with fanatical gestures ; some of a more composed and rational order, despise these extravagances, only maintain-

ing, that good works, fastings, austerities and self denial, refine their minds to the purity of angels; and others maintain that when they are arrived at a certain degree of perfection, they can no longer sin, which has occasioned many vicious practices.

The Cavalists are very strict in their fastings, and abstinence, never eating any animal food, but entirely confining themselves to vegetables. They have forms of prayer for every month, day, and hour. They speak of heavenly visions, and conversations with Angels, by whom they are instructed in the sublimest secrets, and who resolve all their questions. They constantly carry square talismans with figures and characters engraved on them. This order boasts of having for its founder, the celebrated Beni, an Arabian doctor.

The Sunaquites are misanthropes. They bury themselves in deserts, remote from all correspondence with other men, and even fly from their sight. These also live wholly on vegetables. Their tenets are mahometanism, judaism, christianity and paganism jumbled together. They sacrifice animals, and are not circumcised till thirty years old. They affirm, that all religions are originally inspirations of God; that they are the most perfect of all mankind, and that it is owing to their prayers and austerities, that the anger of God does not break out and destroy the world.

Some of these men deserve the veneration they

inspire by their piety and virtue, the greater number owe their usurped authority to hypocrisy and superstition, while some are idiots and madmen. The marabbutts otherwise are not recognized by the mussulman hierarchy.

The French conquest has left the Mahometans of Algiers but a small number of their religious edifices, but they are sufficient for the wants of the population. Besides their ministers of religion have been respected, the temples and their contents protected from insult, (even the entry has been severely interdicted) the management of them carefully attended to, and the magnificent portico of marble columns before the grand mosque of Algiers proves to the natives that the French administration does not take less care of their worship, than of their own.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.

In the ordinary distribution of justice, there was in this, as in all other Turkish governments, an officer whom they called a Kady, who for the most part had been educated in the seminaries of Stamboule or Grand Cairo, where the Roman codes and pandects, translated into the Arabic language are taught and explained, as in the universities of Europe. The Kady was obliged to attend at the court of justice, once or twice a day, where he heard and determined the several suits and complaints that were brought

before him. But as bribery was often and justly enough placed to his charge, all affairs of importance were laid before the Dey, or in his absence &c., they were heard by the treasurer, by the master of the horse, or by other principal officers of the Regency who sat in the gate of the palace for that purpose. At all these tribunals, the cause was quickly decided, nothing more being required than the proof of what was alleged: so that a matter of debt, or trespass, or the highest crime was finally decided, and the sentence put in execution, in less than an hour.

In cases of debt, the debtor was usually detained in prison till the chouses or bailiffs, had seized upon his effects and sold them. If the sale amounted to more than the debt, the overplus was returned to the prisoner; if it fell short, he was notwithstanding released, and no further demands were made upon him. Lesser offences were punished with the bastinado, that is with sticks of the size of a finger: which like the Roman fasces were brought in bundles to the place of punishment, where the offender received upon the soles of his feet, or upon a more ignoble part "not to be named to ears polite," from fifty to one thousand blows, according to the nature or atrocity of the crime. For clipping or debasing the coin, they cut off the hands of the transgressor, which was the old Egyptian punishment. When a Jew, or a Christian slave, or subject, was guilty of murder, or any other capital crime, he was burnt alive outside

the gates of the city: but the Moors and Arabs were either impaled for the same crime, or else they were hung up by the neck, over the battlements of the city walls, or thrown upon the chingan, or hooks, that were fixed all over the walls below, where sometimes they broke from one hook to another, and hung in the greatest torments for thirty or forty hours. The Turks were not publicly punished like other offenders. Out of respect to their characters, they were always sent to the house of the Aga, where, according to the nature of the misdemeanour, they were bastinadoed or strangled. When the women offended, they were not, on account of their sex, exposed to the populace, but sent to some private house of correction; or, if the crime was capital, they were tied up in a sack, carried out to sea and drowned. The western Moors used the barbarous punishment of sawing the body of the criminal in two. For which purpose they prepared two boards of a proper length and breadth, and having tied the criminal between them, they proceeded to the execution, by beginning at the head. About a century ago, Kardinash, a person of the first distinction in that country, and who had been ambassador at the British court, was put to death in this manner. For it may be very justly observed, with respect to the former punishments of this country, that there was little or no regard paid to the rank of the offender, but to the nature of the offence. Sometimes indeed, a pecu-

niary mulct would stop the course of justice; but if the crime was flagrant, no atonement could be made for it, the transgressor immediately suffered the punishment, which he was thought to deserve.

CHRISTIAN SLAVERY.

THE sale of slaves was very profitable to the State; besides which none could be ransomed without paying ten per cent of the price of their ransom; and a duty was also laid upon their importation and exportation.

When the Dey had taken his eighth from any number recently brought in, the others were sent to the Batistan or slave market, where the first sale of them was transacted in the following manner.

The brokers walked them one after another about the market, proclaiming the rank, trade and price of the slave. Persons of all nations were admitted to bid, and the auction was carried on till there were no more bidders. Then the clerk of the sale booked the price.

This sale never rose very high, because of a subsequent one in the Dey's Palace, and in his presence, where the slave was delivered up. There all the purchasers resorted, and the slave was again put up and afterwards delivered to the highest bidder, who set him to such work as was most conformable to the slave's abilities, or his own convenience.

The price of the first sale at the Batistan belonged to the owners and crew, the excess of the second above the first was a perquisite of the Deylic, and was often equal to the first, because the buyers, knowing that the second sale determined the delivery of the slaves, did not vie with one another at the first. These purchases were always made with ready money.

The slaves might be reduced into two classes—those of the Deylic, and those of private houses.

As for the Deylic slaves, a certain number of the young and handsome attended as pages. This station required them to be well fed and clothed, besides which, they often received rather considerable gratuities from those who had business at court.

Others were appointed for the service of the Barrack, and these met with very liberal entertainment from the Turkish soldiers. Another division was in the bagnios, in which they were shut up every evening. There they had a small mattress and rug for their bed, besides a daily allowance of three small loaves. Every bagnio had a chapel for the free exercise of the Christian religion.

The Dey always ordered some of these slaves on board of any ship going on a cruize, and their share was proportioned to their abilities, but two thirds of it went to the Dey. All the slaves of the Deylic were, by order, to wear a small iron ring upon one of

their ankles, as a distinction from others, but it was not strictly observed. However it was now and then renewed, because old slaves, who were naturalized to the language of the country, sometimes robbed the Moorish farms in Turkish habits.

The Dey let out all carpenters, caulkers and smiths, among the slaves, to the owners of ships, treating them the same with regard to their wages as with prize money; that was, leaving them only one third.

At a certain hour every evening, all the slaves were obliged to retire to the bagnios. At daybreak the gates were again opened, when all who were of any trade, and inclined to work for themselves, obtained leave by paying a fee to the Guardian-Bachi. Those who were of no trade, were employed in the public works of the government. Every morning a number were draughted out for this labour, who were relieved next day by another set, so that by this change they might be kept in health and vigour. And they were taken proper care of when really sick, indeed not so much out of humanity, as fear of losing them. But if any, to avoid work, pretended sickness, and their shamming was discovered, they were severely punished, besides having an increase of labour.

Some slaves obtained the privilege of keeping coffee or eating houses, for the entertainment of any

who had money. They might use any means to oblige refractory customers to pay them, even so far as to strip and beat Turkish soldiers, if they would not pay them by fair means. Although these persons paid a yearly tax both to the Dey and Guardian Bachi, their profits were so great, by their extortions, that in a year's time they might purchase their liberty; but they were generally so immersed in debauchery, that they were seldom capable of a wise or generous design, and preferred Algiers to their native country.

The slaves of private persons might also be divided into two classes, some being bought for the particular service of the purchasers, in their houses, gardens, &c., the welfare of these depended on their master's temper, or their behaviour. However the masters seldom or ever used their slaves with a continual severity, or overloaded them with hardships, being apprehensive such usage would bring on an illness which might prove their own loss.

As all servants at Algiers were slaves, some wealthy masters took a pride in keeping them well dressed and fed, as an honor to his family; several among them had no less sway in the house than their master, slept in the same chamber, and were in all respects treated with the indulgence of children. The criminal practices of some, often indeed brought very severe treatment on them by way of example, but even then care was generally taken to avoid extre-

mities which might injure them, so that they could not be sold without loss.

The load of misery generally fell upon those who were imagined to be either rich themselves, or had rich relations, and consequently whose ransom might be rated high. They were usually bought by the "Tagariens," descendants of the Spanish Moors, who dealt in nothing but slaves, as a common commodity, of which they made what advantage they could. This servitude was indeed very wretched, their masters forced them to work without the least profit to themselves, and some carried their cruelty so far that their severities becoming intolerable, they ransomed themselves at any price. A great aggravation of these sufferings was, that they were usually persons of education and refinement who fell into the hands of these Tagariens, and they were particularly desirous of procuring Priests or Ecclesiastics.

Any one had the privilege of sending his slaves on a cruize to share in their prize money; others hired out their slaves to consuls or Christian families, for their food, clothing, and a current piastre a month.

Slaves, on their first coming to Algiers, could not be too much upon their guard against the insinuations of their countrymen, who were generally depraved by servitude. They, craftily pretending to condole

with those lately taken, obtained from them particulars relating to their birth and circumstances, what prospects there were of their being soon ransomed, and what their parents or relations were able to give. Treachery was the end of all this seeming kindness: for these villains, for a piastre or two, discovered to their master all they had been told, and he regulated their ransom by the report of these betrayers; some slaves also made it their practice to write letters for such as could not write, and afterwards, for a small reward, inform their owners of the contents.

The slaves in general were more respected at Algiers than even the free christians. The latter could seldom appear in the streets without being insulted, at least with words, by the Turks, the Cologlies, and the young Moors; whereas not an angry word was given to the former, much less were they beaten. For if a slave fell sick and died, the person who had beat him, or his relations, was condemned to pay for him above the value. Sometimes they were used with such indulgence, that they only received slight punishments for such crimes committed in their masters' houses as deserved the greatest; for their masters dared not formally accuse them lest they should be capitally convicted. The christian slaves were generally so licentious and abandoned, that a person of common morality was hardly to be found among them. If any one led a

proper life and was diligent and faithful to his master, he in return generally met with the utmost kindness and was even looked upon with admiration. It is evident, beyond all dispute, that the hardships and cruelties which the christians were supposed to suffer at Algiers, were generally the proper recompence of their own flagitiousness. Some slaves, with the profits of their industry, lived so comfortably at Algiers, that they even purchased the right of being slaves for a certain time, or for their whole lives. After settling a price of their ransom with their masters, they paid down the greatest part, because that payment secured them from being transferred to others; besides which, these partly ransomed slaves paid a certain acknowledgment every moon to their masters, for the freedom of working for themselves, never paying the remainder of their ransom that they might be considered slaves and protected as such.

The ransom of slaves was transacted three different ways: by the public redemption, at the charge of the state, of which the slaves were subjects; by the mediation of such religious societies as made collections for that purpose; and by the orders of private persons. Whatever the way might be, immediately after paying the price of their ransom to the owner, various other duties, called the gates, were also required, amounting to forty three piastres

exclusive of ten per cent upon the ransom to the Custom House.

As soon as the collection of alms for a redemption amounted to a sufficient sum, notice was sent to the Father Administrator of the Spanish hospital at Algiers, who applied to the Dey for a passport for the Fathers, appointed to come on the redemption, and the vessel they hired for that purpose. These Fathers upon their arrival were immediately introduced to the Dey, and made him a considerable present in jewels or money. When they had informed the Dey what sum or what goods they had brought, an Aga Bachi was sent on board to examine and certify the truth of their report. Everything being landed and carried to the Dey's palace, three and a half per cent was deducted upon the money, and twelve and a half upon the value of the goods. The Dey also took before-hand the amount of the gate fees, but the latter deduction was allowed at the payment of the several ransoms. After thus securing his money, the Dey appointed a handsome house for the Fathers, with an interpreter, who was usually that of the French company.

The Fathers brought with them a list of slaves, who had been recommended to their order, or particularly to themselves, by men in power, or their relations; and these, without regard to more affecting objects, were usually preferred in the ransom, except

that they were obliged by their institutes first to ransom all young women and children, as the weakness of their sex and age might yield to the artifices made use of to seduce them from their holy faith.

The Fathers privately procured information of the slaves of their country, the names of their masters, their place of abode, their age and trade, in order to negotiate their ransom upon better terms.

Some slaves also were entitled to their redemption in proportion to the sum destined for that purpose, which were those of the Deylic, whose number and price the Dey settled. Some belonging to the Dey himself, and one to each secretary of state, though they were neither of their nation or religion. Afterwards they proceeded to ransom those mentioned in the list, to the amount of their contributions.

During this negotiation, the slaves crowded about the Fathers with petitions, and such as had saved any money by their industry delivered it to them as a part of their ransom. The Turks and Moors also, who had slaves, shewed them the greatest civility, to induce them to ransom their slaves before others, and to excite their compassion told them that they were sickly, and might die in slavery, with many other pretences, though generally confirmed by the slaves themselves, to whom the masters promised a gratuity, in proportion to the price of the ransom.

When the Fathers had ransomed all the slaves of their nation, the remainder of their money was disposed of in favor of other christian slaves. The whole negotiation being finished, each slave had a white burnoose or mantle given him, who, on a day appointed, assisted at high mass for thanksgiving in the Spanish hospital. Afterwards they proceeded to the Dey's palace, where each of them received a "jeskeret" or certificate of freedom, and the Fathers, with great ceremony, took their leave of the Dey and officers of the divan. Some of the Fathers of the redemption, walked in the front, others in the middle, and others in the rear; the slaves walked two and two between them; in this order they proceeded to the ship, which immediately got under sail. On such a day all possible precautions were used that no slave should mix himself among the ransomed. It was a custom among the slaves to let their beards grow all the time of their servitude, except those who throve and proposed to remain at Algiers; the latter were always neat and clean, wearing only whiskers; but the beards of some of the former hung down to their waist, nor after their ransom would the Fathers allow them to be shaved, because on their arrival in Spain a very solemn procession was performed, in which the slaves were led two by two in this Moorish garb, with their venerable beards, and chain, which they never wore before; the sight

so admirably excited the compassion and liberality of the people, that a great deal of gold and silver was thrown into the basins, which were carried by persons of rank, besides the charities privately conveyed to the Fathers of the redemption.

The ransom of slaves by particular orders, was transacted by those commissioned to perform it. They contracted with the owners of the slaves, and attended to opportunities of ransoming them at the cheapest rate, according to the instructions they received. The ransom and fees being paid, they were permitted to go on board any vessel on producing their certificate of freedom; unless they owed any debt, for till that was discharged they could not leave the city.

Private ransoms were obtained at a much lower rate than those of the Fathers, particularly when managed by prudent persons and with a seeming indifference. For the Fathers paid a large duty upon the money or commodities which they brought and were obliged to make a present to the Dey, and some officers of the divan; to redeem several slaves at the Dey's own exorbitant price, and when they were once within Algiers, they were, in effect, no longer masters of their stock. These ransoming missions were very beneficial to great numbers of distressed slaves: for sometimes the pro-

cession on their arrival in Spain, consisted of seven or eight hundred persons, which with the before-mentioned artifices produced large contributions.

COMMERCE.

The corsairs were chiefly instrumental in importing whatever commodities were brought into the kingdom either by way of merchandize or prizes. These consisted principally of gold and silver stuffs, damasks, cloths, spices, tin, iron, plated brass, lead, quicksilver, cordage, sail cloth, bullets, cochineal, linen, tartar, alum, rice, sugar, soap, raw cotton and spun, copperas, aloes, brazil and logwood, vermilion, &c. Very few commodities, however, were exported ; the oil, wax, hides and corn produced being little more than sufficient to supply the country ; though before the loss of Oran, the merchants have shipped off several thousand tons of corn. The consumption of oil, though here very abundant, was so considerable that it was seldom permitted to be shipped for Europe. The other exports consisted chiefly of ostrich feathers, copper, rugs, silk sashes, embroidered handkerchiefs, dates, and christian slaves.

ARTS AND SCIENCES.

For many ages the Mahometans have singularly

neglected the liberal arts and sciences. Philosophy, mathematics, and the knowledge of physic and medicine, which a few centuries ago, they had almost entirely to themselves, are, at present, very little known or studied. The roving and unsettled life of the Arabs, and the tyranny to which the Moors were subjected by the Turks, would not permit either of them to enjoy that liberty, quiet and security, which have at all times given birth and encouragement to learning.

When the Moorish and Turkish boys, (for there is hardly any education among the Bedoweens) are about six years old, they are sent to school, where they learn to read, write, and repeat their lessons at the same time. They make no use of paper; but each boy writes upon a thin, smooth board, slightly smeared over with whiting, which may be wiped off or renewed at pleasure. After they have made some progress in the Koran, which is the principal book that is taught there, they are initiated with the same care, in the several ceremonies and devotions of their religion. When a boy has laudably acquitted himself in any branch of these instructions, he is dressed in handsome clothes, and being mounted on a horse richly caparisoned, is conducted through the streets by his school-fellows, with loud acclamations. In the mean time, his friends and relations meet together to congratulate his parents, and to load the young scholar with gifts. After

the boys have been thus employed for three or four years, they leave school, and there are few who retain what they have learned in their youth.

Excepting the Koran and some enthusiastic comments upon it, few books are read or enquired after by that small number of persons of riper years, who have either time or leisure for study and contemplation.

However, though generally very ignorant, they possess great natural parts, wanting only time, application, and encouragement, to cultivate and improve them.

Their medical skill is trifling. There are few, if any, of the more dangerous cases and diseases, which do not either prove mortal, or of very long continuance. It is also to be observed, that few persons will admit either of advice or medicine, believing in strict and absolute predestination: while others who are less superstitious, prevent the assistance of both, by their bad conduct and management, leaving all to the strength of nature, or else to magareah, as they call charms and enchantments. The history of their medical knowledge may be expressed in a few lines; for, excepting the following remedies, together with the constant resort that is made to the public baths in every kind of disease, there is little besides of general use.

In rheumatic, and pleuritic cases, it is usual to make several punctures upon the part affected, with

a red hot iron. This operation is repeated according to the strength of the patient, and the violence of the disease.

A decoction of sandegourah, as they call the ground pine, or else of the globularia fruticosa, is the usual medicine for fevers, and the common scabious of Algeria, taken either as a salad, or else in a strong decoction, has been known to remove violent tertian and quartan agues.

A drachm, or two, of the root of round birthwort, or boriestum, as they call it, is an established remedy for the cholic and other flatulent disorders; as the root of bookoka, or arisarum, dried and powdered, is for the stone and gravel.

One drachm of a dark colored drop stone, or the same quantity of the powder of the orobanche Mauritanica, has been used with good success in stopping inveterate diarrhoeas.

Little more is observed in the management of the small-pox, than to keep the patient moderately warm, and giving now and then six or eight grains of alkermes in honey, to throw out the pustules. They make use of fresh butter to obstruct the pitting: and to prevent the ulcers from coming upon the eyes, they keep the lids constantly tinged with alkahol. Inoculation is performed by making a small wound upon the fleshy part of the hand, between the thumb and the fore finger. The person who is to undergo the operation, receives the infection from some friend

or neighbour who has a favorable kind, and who is entreated to sell two or three of his pustules, for the same number of nuts, sugar plums &c. This they call purchasing the small-pox. However, inoculation and vaccination are in very little repute, most people considering it a tempting of Providence and as soliciting a disease before nature may be disposed to receive it. Accordingly they tell a number of stories to discourage the practice: particularly of a beautiful young lady, who, not to lose much of her beauty, purchased only a couple of pustules. It happened indeed that she had no more than were paid for: but the misfortune was, that they fell upon her eyes, and blinded her.

The Arabs attempt to heal all simple and gun shot wounds, by pouring fresh butter, almost boiling hot, into the part affected.

For swellings, bruises, inflammations, &c., the leaves of the prickly pear, roasted a quarter of an hour in the ashes, and applied as hot as possible to the part affected, are, in this climate, found to be very beneficial. They are celebrated also for suppurating and bringing plague, sores and tumours to maturity. They have also been known to cure the gout, without the least suspicion of having any repelling quality

In slight wounds, bruises, and inflammations, some persons take the powder of alhenna, and make it up with warm water into a cataplasm. This, when ap-

plied, not only tinges the skin with a tawny, orange color, which continues for some months, but it passes into the blood.

In fresh wounds, and some other of the above mentioned cases, the leaves also of the virga aurea minor foliis glutinoses, which they call madramam, have a good effect, while the root of toufailet, or thapsia, roasted and applied hot to the hips, or made up into an ointment, is reckoned a specific remedy in the sciatica.

These are some of the principal medicines or "douwas," us they call them, that are made use of in this country: in the prescribing or taking of which, they observe no uniform practice or exact proportion. For those which regard external cases are sometimes applied too sparingly, while others, in the same case, act quite the contrary, supposing the larger the cataplasm the speedier the cure. Neither is there much more caution used in such medicines, as are given inwardly. For a handful at random, whether of dry or green herbs, is the common dose: which, if taken in a decoction, they usually pound first in a mortar, and then pour at a venture, half a pint, a whole pint, or more, of boiling water upon it. Compound medicines are very rare. The Moors pretend to have received several of them traditionally from their ancestors, but the few ingredients which the shops of their "tibeels" are furnished with, to answer such prescriptions, and

the unwillingness they have to converse upon the subject, afford strong suspicions that they are no better versed in the "materia medica" than the Arabs. There is a prescription ascribed to a celebrated Marabbutt, who recommended it, as follows:

"The lives of us all are in the hands of God, and when IT IS WRITTEN, we must die.

"However, it has pleased God to save many persons from the plague, by taking every morning, while the infection lasts, one or two pills of the following composition: viz: of myrrh, two parts: saffron, one part: aloes, two parts: syrup of myrtle berries, q. s."

This, however, was described long before by a celebrated physician, and known afterwards under the name of Pil Rufi ad pestilentiam preacavendum, &c.

I do not know how they treat the elephantiasis, which is common in these parts. One morning I saw a Berber outside the gate bab azoun at Algiers, who was afflicted with this dreadful malady, his left leg was nearly three times the size of the other, and the toes of the diseased limb were rotted off; a further description would be disgusting to non-medical readers.

The last account of elephantiasis is by Dr. Heberden in the first volume of the medical transactions, and in the admirable museum of the college of surgeons in the Lincoln's Inn Fields there is a

picture of a woman with this disorder, besides portions of diseased limbs preserved in spirits.

Their knowledge of the mathematics is very slight. They are altogether strangers to those that are speculative and abstracted. Even such quadrants, astrolabes, and other mathematical instruments of their ancestors as have escaped the injuries of time, are regarded more as curiosities, than consulted as useful inventions. Their calendars (which are all the works of former ages) contain the sun's place, the semi-diurnal and nocturnal arch, the length of the twilight, with the several hours of prayer for each day in the month; these are calculated to a minute, and beautifully inserted in proper columns; but they are as little consulted as their instruments: for, if the cloudiness of the weather will not permit them to adjust their small and larger hour glasses to some inaccurate meridian lines, made for that purpose, the times of devotion, which should be punctual to a minute, are left entirely to the will and pleasure of their muezzims or muedins, that is to the criers, no other methods being studied for the mensuration of time: public clocks, from the great aversion perhaps which the Mahometans have to bells, not being allowed.

Even the very first operations, either in numerical arithmetic or algebra, are not known to one person in twenty thousand, notwithstanding their forefathers appear to have been the inventors of the one, as they

have given to all Europe the characters of the other.

It is often supposed, because our numbers are called "the Arabic," that they are exactly the same; such however is not the case, our figures viz: 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 0—are borrowed from the Arabian numerals, and which were taken originally from the Indians.

The merchants, besides being frequently very quick in the addition and substraction of large sums by memory, have a singular method of numeration by putting their hands into each other's sleeve, and there touching one another with this or that finger, or with such a particular joint of it, each of them denoting a determined sum or number; thus they will transact business of the greatest importance without speaking to one another, or letting the bye-standers into the secret.

Their thalebs pretend to such a powerful insight into the nature and quality of numbers, that by differently joining and combining them, they can discover a variety of secrets: excite as well as break the force of charms, &c.

A small book full of figures and magic charms, in which the Mahometans place such confidence that after they have suspended it upon their bosoms, they are not afraid of anything.

An English traveller relates the following story: "I once saw a strolling Dervish at Algiers, armed

with a (this) book, who would have allowed, and even tried to provoke us to fire a loaded gun or pistol at his head or breast, which he confidently assured us could do him no harm. But as it was not prudent to make the experiment, and as the influence of it would be the same, as he said, upon any other creature, we suspended it upon the neck of a sheep: which, a little to our surprise at first, and to the no small exultation of the Dervish, stood about a minute, after it was shot, before it fell down dead."

The following diagram or "net" as they name it, called haraz el mabarak or "the blessed amulet," is one among those numerical combinations, which when hung about the neck, is said to procure the favour of princes, to inspire courage, to intimidate an enemy, to prevent illness, or anything else hurtful and injurious.

The numerals in the original are Arabic—

70	9	2
10	70	7
8	1	6

The natives have a high opinion of the superior knowledge of the Europeans. A young Englishman was sitting by the side of a road, writing down some

botanical names, when two Berbers came up and made signs pointing to his pen and ink bottle; at first he was at a loss to guess their meaning, till one of them turned aside the breast of his tunic, and showed him two paper charms suspended round his neck, he then rightly guessed that he was requested to write them one; thinking a refusal would be construed into "I will not," instead of "I can not," and seeing by their eager, petitioning looks that it would please them, he complied and wrote on two pieces of paper on which he drew a few mathematical figures, the following :—

Chro-non-ho-ton-thol-o-gos
and
In hoc est hoax, cum quiz et jokesez.

On receiving which "potent charms," they carefully folded them up, and went away highly pleased.

A full account of their architecture will be found in the description of the city of Algiers.

With respect to music, these people play upon several instruments: but they do not write down their compositions, or aim at any contrast or variety of parts in the music itself. The music of the Bedoween rarely consists of more than one strain, but suitable to their rude instruments and to their simple invention.

The *arabebbah*, as they call the bladder and string, is in the highest vogue, and no doubt of

great antiquity among them, as is also the gaspah which is a common reed, open at each end, like the German flute, with three or more holes upon the side, according to the ability of the person who is to play it: though the compass of their tunes seldom or never exceeds an octave. Yet even in this simplicity of harmony, they observe something of form. For in their "historical cantatas" particularly, they have their preludes and symphonies: each stanza being introduced with a flourish from the arabebbah, while the narration itself is accompanied with some soft touches upon the gaspah. The strolling Bedoweens, and Dervishes, like the ancient rhapsodists, are chiefly conversant in this sort of music; who after they have got a crowd of people together and placed themi n a circle, they begin to chant over the memorable actions of their prophet &c., or else, placing before them the plans of Mecca, Medina, &c., give a flourish, at each period of their descriptions; with one or other of these instruments.

The *taar*, another of their instruments, is made like a sieve, consisting of a thin rim, or hoop of wood with a skin of parchment stretched over the top of it. This serves for the bass in all their concerts: they touch it very skilfully with their fingers, or with the knuckles, or palms, of their hands, as the time and measure require, or as force and softness are to be communicated to the several

parts of the performance. The taar, is undoubtedly the tympanum of the ancients: which appears, as well from the general use of it all over Barbary, Egypt, and the Levant, as from the method of playing upon it, and the shape of the instrument itself, which is exactly the same as what is represented in the hands of Cybele and Bacchanals among the basso relievos and statues of the ancients.

But the music of the Moors is more skilful, and melodious than that of the Bedoweens, for most of their tunes are lively, and pleasing. The Moors will often seriously affirm that the flowers of mullein, and mothwort, will droop upon playing the mismoune.

They have also a much greater variety of instruments than the Arabs, for besides several kinds of flutes and hautboys, they have the rebebb or violin of two strings played upon with a bow. They have also A-oude, or bass, double stringed lute, that is touched with a plectrum: besides several smaller guitars, or quetaras, according to their pronounciation, of different sizes, each of them tuned an octave higher than another. They have also improved the taar of the Bedoweens, by suspending loosely, upon pieces of wire in the rim of it, several pairs of their hollow, brass plates, which, clashing against each other in the several strokes, and vibra-

tions given to the parchment, form a clinking but regular sort of noise, that fills up those slight vacancies of sound, that would otherwise be unavoidable. Yet, notwithstanding this multiplicity of instruments, and that they learn all by the ear, and pass quickly from one measure to another, hastening the time, as the musicians term it, in them all, yet the greatest uniformity and exactness is always preserved throughout these performances; frequently twenty or thirty persons will play together in this manner, during a whole night (the usual time of their more particular entertainments) without making the least mistake or hesitation.

When I was at Algiers in 1843, I frequently heard one of their most popular airs at the Moorish coffee-houses. It was generally played, like other tunes in those places, by male musicians, on the rebebb or two stringed violin and the quetaras or guitar, while the singing girls accompanied it with their voices, and a sort of taar like our tambourine, and beat time also on a small Moorish drum. The performers sit on raised seats along the side of the wall, which is generally ornamented with arabesques.

The Moorish architecture of the coffee-houses, the picturesque costumes of the company, composed generally of Moors and Turks who sit gravely smoking their pipes, and looking as if they were born to do nothing else, the sound of the music, and

the very singular style of singing and playing, forms altogether one of the most extraordinary concerts it is possible to conceive.

The Turkish music is inferior to the Moorish in sprightliness, but it is of a more compound nature than that of the Bedoweens. There is a shade of mourning and melancholy in all the Turkish compositions. This may be accounted for, perhaps, from the long intercourse and intimacy which they had with their former subjects, the Greeks, whose airs, being usually plaintive and serious, inspire in the hearer pensiveness and sorrow. The Turks chiefly make use of two instruments: one is like a long necked violin or kit, played upon like the rebebb, the other, which is like a dulcimer, with brass strings, is touched sometimes with the fingers, sometimes with the small sticks, or else with a plectrum.

AN HISTORICAL SKETCH

OF THE COUNTRY NOW CALLED ALGERIA, FROM THE EARLIEST PERIOD TO THE PRESENT TIME.

The Algerine kingdom, made, formerly, a considerable part of the Mauritania Tingtitana, which was reduced to a Roman province by Julius Cæsar, and from him also called Mauritania Cæsariensis. The Romans were driven out of that continent by the Vandals, who passed over into Africa A. D. 428. At that time this country was, next to Egypt, the most fertile of the Roman Provinces. It was one of the granaries of the Empire, and is called by an ancient writer, "the soul of the commonwealth."

Though the army with which the Vandals invaded it did not exceed thirty thousand fighting men, they became absolute masters of the province in less than two years. A contemporary author gives a dread-

ful account of the havoc which they made: "They found a province well cultivated, and enjoying plenty, the beauty of the whole earth. They carried their destructive arms into every corner of it; they dispeopled it by their devastations; exterminating everything with fire and sword. They did not even spare the vines and fruit trees, that those, to whom caves and inaccessible mountains had afforded a retreat, might find no nourishment of any kind. Their hostile rage could not be satiated, and there was no place exempt from the effects of it. They tortured their prisoners with the most exquisite cruelty, that they might force from them a discovery of their hidden treasures. The more they discovered the more they expected, and the more implacable they became. Neither the infirmities of age nor of sex: neither the dignity of nobility, nor the sanctity of the sacerdotal office, could mitigate their fury; but the more illustrious their prisoners were, the more barbarously they insulted them. The public buildings, which resisted the violence of the flames, they levelled with the ground. They left many cities without an inhabitant. When they approached any fortified place, which their undisciplined army could not reduce, they gathered together a multitude of prisoners and putting them to the sword, left their bodies unburied, that the smell of the carcases might oblige the garrison to abandon it."

Saint Augustin, the celebrated African, who sur-

vived the conquest of his country by the Vandals some years, gives a similar description of their cruelties.

About a hundred years after the settlement of the Vandals in Africa, Belisarius, the Greek Emperor Justinian's General, attacked and dispossessed him. Procopius a contemporary historian describes the devastation which that war occasioned. "Africa," says he, "was so entirely dispeopled that one migh travel several days in it without meeting one man and it is no exaggeration to say, that in the course of the war five millions of persons perished."

The Greeks in their turn, were driven out by the Arabs or Saracens. This last revolution happened about the middle of the seventh century: and the Arabs continued masters of the country, divided into a great number of petty kingdoms, or states, under chiefs of their own choosing, till the year 1051. In this year, one Abubeker ben Omar, or, as the Spanish authors call him, Abu Texefien, an Arab of the Zinhagian tribe being provoked by the tyranny of those despots, gathered, by the help of his marabbutts or saints, a most powerful army of malcontents, in the southern provinces of Numidia, and Lybia. His followers were named Marabites or Mozabites, by the Spaniards Almoravides, probably from their being assembled principally by the saints, who were also called Morabites. The Caliphs of Kayen's forces were at this time employed in quelling other revolts

in Syria, Mesopotamia &c.: and the Arabs in Spain, were engaged in the most bloody wars: so that Texefien having nothing to fear from them, had all the success he could wish against the Arabian Sheiks or petty tyrants, whom he defeated in many battles, and at last drove them not only out of Numidia and Lybia, but out of all the western districts, reducing the whole province of Tingitania under his dominion.

Texefien was succeeded by his son Yusef, or Joseph, a brave and warlike prince. In the beginning of his reign, he founded the city of Morocco, which he designed to make the capital of his Empire. While that city was building, he sent some of his Marabbutts ambassadors to Tremecen, at that time inhabited by a powerful and insolent sect of Mahometans, called Zeneti. The design of this embassy was to bring them back to what he called the true faith, but the Zeneti, despising his offers, assembled at their capital, murdered the ambassadors, and invaded Joseph's dominions with an army of fifty thousand men.

The king, hearing of their proceedings, speedily mustered his army, and led it by long marches into their country, destroying all with fire and sword: while the Zeneti, instead of opposing his progress, retired as fast as possible towards Fez, in hopes of receiving assistance; but in this they were disappointed: the Fezzans marched out against them

in a hostile manner; and coming up with the Zeneti, encumbered with their families and baggage, and ready to expire with hunger and fatigue, they cut them to pieces, excepting a small number, who were nearly all drowned in attempting to swim across a river, and some others who, in their flight, perished by falling from the high, adjacent rocks. In the mean time Joseph reduced their country to a mere desert; which was, however, soon re-peopled by a numerous colony of Fezzans, who settled there under the protection of the reigning kings. In this war it is computed that nearly a million of the Zeneti, men, women and children lost their lives.

The restless and ambitious temper of Joseph did not let him remain long at peace. He soon declared war against the Fezzans, reduced them to become his tributaries, and extended his conquests all along the Mediterranean. He next attacked some Arabian Shieks who had not yet submitted to his jurisdiction; and pursued them with such fury, that neither the Lybian deserts, nor ridges of the most craggy rocks, could shelter them from his arms. He attacked them in such of their retreats, castles, and fortresses, as were till then deemed impregnable: and at last subdued them, to the great regret of the other African nations, who were greatly annoyed by the ravages committed by his numerous forces.

Thus was founded the Empire of the Morabites:

which however was not of long duration: that race being in the twelfth century driven out by Mahovedan, a Marabbutt. This race of priests was expelled by Abdulac, governor of Fez: and he, in the thirteenth century, was deprived of his new conquests by the Sharifs of Hascen, the descendants of those Arabian princes whom Abu Texefien had formerly expelled.

The better to secure their new dominions, the Sharifs divided them into several small kingdoms or provinces; among the rest the kingdom of Algiers was divided into four, namely, Tremecen, Tenez, Algiers Proper, and Bujeyah. The four first monarchs laid so good a foundation for a lasting balance of power between their little kingdoms, that they continued for some centuries in mutual peace and amity; but at length the king of Tremecen having ventured to violate some of their articles, Abul Farez, king of Tenez, declared war against him, and obliged him to become his tributary. This king dying soon after, and having divided his kingdom among his three sons, new discords arose; which Spain taking advantage of, a powerful fleet and army was sent against Barbary, under the Count of Navarre, in 1505. This commander made himself master of the important cities of Oran, Bujeyah and some others, and so alarmed the Algerines, that they put themselves under the protection of Selim Eutemi, a noble and warlike Arabian prince. He came to their assistance with a great number of his bravest

subjects, bringing with him his wife Zaphira, and a son, then about twelve years old. This, however, was not sufficient to prevent the Spaniards from landing a numerous force near Algiers the same year, and obliging that metropolis to become tributary to Spain. Nor could prince Selim prevent them from building a strong fort on a small island opposite to the city, which prevented his corsairs from sailing either in or out of the harbour.

To this galling yoke, the Algerines were obliged to submit till the death of the king of Spain in 1516, when a revolution was brought about by :—

ARUCH AND HAYRADIN BARBAROSSA.

These men were the sons of a potter in the Isle of Lesbos, who, prompted by a restless and enterprising spirit, forsook their father's trade, went to sea, and joined a band of pirates. They soon distinguished themselves by their valour and activity, and becoming masters of a small brigantine, carried on their infamous trade with such conduct and success, that they assembled a fleet of twelve galleys, besides many vessels of a smaller force. Of this fleet Aruch, the elder brother, called Barbarossa, from the red color of his beard, was Admiral, and Hayradin the younger brother second in command, but with equal authority. They called themselves "the friends of the sea, and the enemies of all who sailed upon it"

and their names soon became terrible from the straits of the Dardanelles, those of Gibraltar. With their fame and power, their ambitious views extended, and while acting as corsairs, they adopted the ideas, and acquired the talents of conquerors. They often carrried the prizes which they took on the coasts of Spain, and Italy into the ports of Barbary, and enriching the inhabitants by the sale of their booty, and the thoughtless prodigality of their crews were welcome guests in every place at which they touched. The convenient situation of these harbours, lying so near the greatest commercial states at that time in Christendom, made the brothers wish for an establishment in that country. An opportunity of accomplishing this presented itself, which they did not suffer to pass unimproved. Eutemi king of Algiers, having attempted several times, without success, to take a fort which the Spanish governors of Oran had built not far from his capital, was so ill-advised as to apply for aid to Barbarossa; the purport of this application was, that he should come and free them from the Spanish yoke, for which they promised to pay him a gratuity answerable to so great a service. Upon this Barbarossa immediately dispatched eighteen galleys and thirty barques to the assistance of the Algerines, while he himself advanced towards the city, with eight hundred Turks, three thousand Jigelites, and two thousand Moorish volunteers. Instead of taking

the nearest road to Algiers, he directed his course towards Shershell, where Hassan, another famed corsair, had established himself. Him he surprised and obliged to surrender not without a previous promise of friendship; but no sooner had Barbarossa got him in his power, than he beheaded him, and obliged all Hassan's Turkish adherents to follow him in his new expedition.

On Barbarossa's approach to Algiers, he was welcomed by all the people of that metropolis, who looked for deliverance though this daring bandit, whom they considered invincible. Elated beyond measure with his kind reception, Barbarossa formed a design of becoming king of Algiers: and fearing some opposition from the inhabitants, on account of the excesses he suffered his soldiers to commit, he murdered their prince Eutemi, by suffocating him in a bath; and caused himself to be proclaimed king; his Turks and Moors crying out as he rode along the streets, "Long live king Aruch Barbarossa the invincible king of Algiers, the chosen of God to deliver the people from the oppressions of the Christians: and destruction to all that shall oppose or refuse to own him as their lawful sovereign." These threatening words so intimidated the inhabitants, already apprehensive of a general massacre, that he was immediately acknowledged as King.

Barbarossa was no sooner seated on the throne, than he treated his subjects with such cruelty, that

they used to shut up their houses and hide themselves when he appeared in public; in consequence of which, a plot was soon formed against him; but having discovered it he caused twenty of the principal conspirators to be beheaded, and their bodies to be buried in a dung-hill, and laid a heavy fine on those who survived. This so terrified the Algerines, that they never afterwards attempted any thing against Barbarossa or his successors.

In the mean time the son of prince Eutemi having fled to Oran, and put himself under the protection of the Marquis of Gomarez, laid before that nobleman a plan for putting the city of Algiers into the hands of the king of Spain. Cardinal Ximenes, having approved of it, sent a fleet, with ten thousand land forces, under the command of Don Francisco, or as others call him Don Diego de Vera, to drive out the Turks and restore the young prince; but the fleet no sooner came within sight of land than it was dispersed by a storm, and the greater part of the ships dashed against the rocks; most of the Spaniards were drowned, and the few who escaped to the shore were either killed by the Turks, or made slaves.

Though Barbarossa had nothing to boast on this occasion, his pride and insolence had now risen to such a height that he imagined himself invincible. He found little difficulty in conquering the kingdoms of Tenez and Tremecen. Abuchen Men, however, the exiled King of France, had recourse to

Charles the Fifth, then lately arrived in Spain with a powerful fleet and army. That monarch immediately ordered the young King a succour of ten thousand men, under the command of the Governor of Oran, who, under the guidance of Abuchen Men, began his march towards Tremecen, and in their way they were joined by Prince Selim, with a great number of Arabs and Moors. Barbarossa kept close in his capital, being embarrassed by his fears of a revolt, and the politic delays of the King of Fez, who had not sent the auxiliaries he had promised. Being informed that Abuchen Men and his Arabs, accompanied by the Spaniards, were in full march, to lay seize to Tremecen, he thought proper to come out at the head of one thousand, five hundred Turks, and five thousand Moorish horse, in order to break his way through the enemy ; but he had not proceeded far from the city, before his council advised him to return and fortify himself in it. This advice was now too late, the inhabitants being resolved to shut him out, and open their gates to their own prince as soon as he appeared. In this distress Barbarossa saw no resource but to retire into the citadel. Here he defended himself vigorously ; but his provisions failing, he took advantage of a subterraneous passage, which he caused to be dug, and taking his immense treasure with him, stole away as secretly as possible. His flight, however, was soon discovered, and he was so closely

pursued; that to occupy, as he hoped, the enemy, he caused a great part of his money, plate, jewels, &c., to be scattered on the way, thinking they would delay their pursuit in gathering it up. This stratagem, however, failed, through the vigilance of the Spanish Commander, who, being himself at the head of the pursuers, obliged them to march on, till they came up close to him, on the banks of the Huexda, about eight leagues from Tremecen. Barbarossa had just crossed the river with his vanguard, when the Spaniards came up with his rear on the other side, and cut them off; and then, crossing the water, overtook him at a short distance from it. Here a bloody engagement ensued, in which the Turks fought like lions; but being at length overpowered by numbers, they were all cut to pieces, and Barbarossa among the rest, in the forty-fourth year of his age, and four years after he had raised himself to the royal title of Jigel.

The news of Barbarossa's death spread the utmost consternation among the Turks at Algiers; however, they caused his brother, Hayradin, known also by the name of Barbarossa, to be immediately proclaimed King. Hayradin possessed the same ambition and abilities as his brother; he regulated, with admirable prudence, the interior police of his kingdom, carried on his naval operations with great vigour, and built the mole, for the protection of his ships. In this he employed thirty thousand Christian slaves,

whom he obliged to labour, without intermission, for three years, in which time the work was completed. Hayradin soon became dreaded, not only by the Arabs and Moors, but also by the maritime Christian powers, particularly the Spaniards. The Viceroy failed not to acquaint the Grand Seignior with his success, and obtained from him a fresh supply of money, by which he was enabled to build a strong fort, and to erect batteries on all places that might favour the landing of an enemy. All these have since secured greater improvements from time to time.

Hayradin extended his conquest on the continent of Africa. But perceiving that the Moors and Arabs submitted to his government with the utmost reluctance, and being afraid that his continual depredations would one day draw upon him the arms of the Christians, he put his dominions under the protection of the Grand Seignior, and received from him a body of Turkish soldiers sufficient for his security against his domestic as well as his foreign enemies. At last, the fame of his exploits daily increasing, Solyman offered him the command of the Turkish fleet, as the only person whose valour and skill in naval affairs, entitled him to command against Andrew Doria, the greatest sea officer of that age. Proud of this distinction, Hayradin repaired to Constantinople, and with a wonderful versatility of mind, mingling the arts of a courtier

with the boldness of a corsair, gained the entire confidence both of the Sultan and his Vizier. To them he communicated a scheme which he had formed of making himself master of Tunis, the most flourishing kingdom, at that time, on the coast of Africa ; and this being approved of by them, he obtained whatever he demanded for carrying it into execution.

His hopes of success in this undertaking were founded on the intestine divisions in the kingdom of Tunis. Mahmed, the last King of that country, having thirty-four sons by different wives, appointed Muley Hascen, one of the youngest among them, to be his successor. That weak Prince, who owed this preference, not to his own merit, but to the ascendency which his mother had acquired over a monarch doting with the puerility of age, first poisoned Mahmed, his father, in order to prevent him from altering his destination with respect to the succession, and then, with the barbarous policy which prevails wherever polygamy is permitted and the right of succession is not precisely fixed, he put to death all his brothers whom he could get into his power. Alraschid, one of the eldest, was so fortunate as to escape his rage ; and finding a retreat among the wandering Arabs, made several attempts, by the assistance of some of their chiefs, to recover the throne, which of right belonged to him. But these proving unsuccessful, and the Arabs, from their natural levity, being ready

to deliver him up to his merciless brother, he fled to Algiers, the only place of refuge remaining, and implored the protection of Barbarossa, who, discovering at once all the advantages which might be gained by supporting his title, received him with every demonstration of friendship and respect. Being ready, at that time, to set sail for Constantinople, he easily persuaded Alraschid, whose eagerness to obtain a crown disposed him to believe or undertake anything, to accompany him thither, promising him effectual assistance from Solyman. whom he represented to be the most generous, as well as most powerful monarch in the world. But no sooner were they arrived at Constantinople, than the treacherous corsair, regardless of all his promises to him, opened to the Sultan a plan for conquering Tunis, and annexing it to the Turkish Empire, by making use of the name of this exiled Prince, and co-operating with the party in the kingdom, which was ready to declare in his favour. Solyman approved, with too much facility, of this perfidious proposal, extremely suitable to the character of its author, but altogether unworthy of a great prince. A powerful fleet and numerous army were soon assembled, at the head of which the credulous Alraschid flattered himself that he should soon enter his capital in triumph.

But just as this unhappy Prince was going to embark, he was arrested by order of the Sultan, shut

up in the seraglio, and was never heard of more. Barbarossa sailed with a fleet of two hundred and fifty vessels, towards Africa. After ravaging the coasts of Italy, and spreading terror through every part of that country, he appeared before Tunis, and landing his men, gave out that he came to assert the right of Alraschid, whom he pretended to have left sick on board the admiral's galley. The fort of Golletta, which commands the bay, soon fell into his hands, partly by his own address, partly by the treachery of its commander, and the inhabitants of Tunis, weary of Muley Hascen's government, took arms, and declared for Alraschid with such zeal and unanimity as obliged the former to fly so precipitately, that he left all his treasures behind him. The gates were immediately set open to Barbarossa, as the restorer of their lawful sovereign; but when Alraschid did not appear, and when instead of his name, that of Solyman alone was heard among the acclamations of the Turkish soldiers marching into the town, the people of Tunis began to suspect the corsair's treachery. Their suspicions being soon converted into certainty, they ran to arms with the utmost fury, and surrounded the citadel, into which Barbarossa had led his troops. Having foreseen such a revolution, he was not unprepared for it; he immediately turned against them the artillery on the ramparts, and by one brisk discharge, dispersed the numerous but undirected assailants and forced

them to acknowledge Solyman as their sovereign, and to submit to him as viceroy.

His first care was to put the kingdom, of which he had thus got possession, in a proper posture of defence. He strengthed the citadel which commands the town, and fortifying the Golletta in a regular manner, and at a great expence, made it the principal station for his fleet, and his great arsenal for military as well as naval stores. Being possessed of such extensive territories, he carried on his depredations against the christian states to a greater extent and with more destructive violence than ever. Daily complaints of the outrages committed by his cruisers were brought to the Emperor Charles the Fifth, by his subjects, both in Spain and Italy. All christendom seemed to expect from him, as its greatest and most fortunate prince, that he would put an end to this new and odious species of oppression. At the same time Muley Hascen, the exiled king of Tunis, finding none of the Mahometan princes in Africa willing or able to assist him in recovering his throne, applied to Charles on the 21st of April 1835. as the only person who could assert his rights in opposition to such a formidable usurper.

THE FIRST EXPEDITION OF CHARLES THE FIFTH AGAINST THE CORSAIRS.

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The Emperor Charles the Fifth (father-in-law of Mary Queen of England) equally desirous of delivering his dominions from the dangerous neighbourhood of Barbarossa; of appearing as the protector of an unfortunate prince; and of acquiring the glory annexed in that age to every expedition against the Mahometans, readily concluded a treaty with Muley Hascen, and began to prepare for invading Tunis. Having made trial of his own abilities for war in the late campaign in Hungary, he was now become so fond of the military character, that he determined to command, on this occasion, in person. The united strength of his dominions, was called out upon an enterprise in which the Emperor was about to hazard his glory, and which drew the attention

of all Europe. A Flemish fleet carried from the ports of the Low country a body of German infantry; the galleys of Naples and Sicily took on board the veteran bands of Italians and Spaniards, which had distinguished themselves by so many victories over the French; the Emperor himself embarked at Barcclona with the flower of the Spanish nobility, and was joined by a considerable squadron from Portugal, under the command of the infant Don Lewis, the Empress's brother; Andrew Doria conducted his own galleys, the best appointed at that time in Europe, and commanded by the most skilful officers; the Pope furnished all the assistance in his power towards such a pious enterprise; and the order of Malta, the perpetual enemy of the infidels, equipped a squadron, which, though small, was formidable by the valour of the knights who served on board it. The port of Cagliari in Sardinia was the general place of rendezvous. Doria was appointed high admiral of the fleet; the command of the land forces, under the Emperor, was given to the Marquis de Guasto.

On the sixteenth of July 1535, the fleet, consisting of nearly five hundred vessels, having on board above thirty thousand regular troops, set sail from Cagliari, and after a prosperous voyage landed within sight of Tunis. Barbarossa, having received early intelligence of the Emperor's immense armament, and suspecting its destination, prepared with,

equal prudence and vigour for the defence of his new conquest. He called in all his corsairs from their different stations; he drew from Algiers what forces could be spared; he dispatched messengers to all the African princes, Moors as well as Arabs, and by representing Muley-Hascen as an infamous apostate, prompted by ambition and revenge, not only to become the vassal of a Christian prince, but to conspire with him to extirpate the Mahometan faith, he inflamed those ignorant and bigotted chiefs to such a degree, that they took up arms as in a common cause. Twenty thousand horse, together with a great body of foot, soon assembled at Tunis: and by a proper distribution of presents among them from time to time, Barbarossa kept the ardor which had brought them together from subsiding. But as he was two well acquainted with the enemy whom he had to oppose, to think that these light troops could resist the heavy armed cavalry and veteran infantry which composed the Imperial army, his chief confidence was in the strength of the Golletta, and in his body of Turkish soldiers, who were armed and disciplined after the European manner. Six thousand of these, under the command of Sinan, a renegado Jew, the bravest and most experienced of all his corsairs, he threw into that fort, which the Emperor immediately invested. As Charles had the command of the sea, his camp was so plentifully supplied not only with the necessaries, but with all the

luxuries of life, that Muley-Hascen, who had not been accustomed to see war carried on with such order and magnificence was filled with admiration of the Emperor's power. His troops, animated by his presence, and considering it was meritorious to shed their blood in such a pious cause, contended with each other for the posts of honour and danger. Three separate attacks were concerted, and the Germans, Spaniards, and Italians, having one of these committed to each of them, pushed forward with that eager courage which national emulation inspires. Sinan displayed resolution and skill becoming the confidence which his master had put in him; the garrison performed the hard service on which they were ordered with great fortitude. But though he interrupted the besiegers by frequent sallies, though the Moors and Arabs alarmed the camp with their continual incursions, the breaches soon became so considerable towards the land, while the fleet battered those parts of the fortifications, which it could approach, with no less fury and success, that an assault being made on all sides at once, the place was taken by storm an the 25th of July. Sinan, with the remains of the garrison, retired after an obstinate resistance, over a shallow part of the bay towards the city. By the reduction of the Golletta, the Emperor became master of Barbarossa's fleet, consisting of eighty-seven galleys and galliots, together with his arsenal, and three hundred can-

non, mostly brass, which were planted on the ramparts; a great number in that age, and a remarkable proof of the strength of the fort, as well as of the greatness of the corsair's power. The Emperor marched into the Golletta, through the breach, and turning to Muley-Hascen who attended him, "Here" says he "is a gate open to you, by which you shall return to take possession of your dominions."

Barbarossa, though he felt the full weight of the blow he had received, did not lose courage, or abandon the defence of Tunis. But as the walls were of great extent, and extremely weak; as he could not depend on the fidelity of the inhabitants, nor hope that the Moors and Arabs would sustain the hardships of a siege, he boldly determined to advance with his army, which amounted to fifty-thousand men, towards the Imperial camp, and to decide the fate of his kingdom by the issue of a battle. This resolution he communicated to his principal officers, and representing to them the fatal consequences which might follow, if ten-thousand Christian slaves whom he had shut up in the citadel, should attempt to mutiny during the absence of the army, he proposed, as a necessary precaution for the public security, to massacre them without mercy before he began his march. They all approved warmly of his intention to fight; but inured as they were,

in their piratical depredations, to scenes of bloodshed and cruelty, the barbarity of his proposal concerning the slaves, filled them with horror; and Barbarossa, rather from the dread of irritating them, than swayed by motives of humanity, consented to spare the lives of the slaves.

By this time the Emperor had begun to advance towards Tunis; and although his troops suffered inconceivable hardships, in their march over burning sands, destitute of water, and exposed to the intolerable heat of the sun, they soon came up with the enemy. The Moors and Arabs, emboldened by their vast superiority in number, immediately rushed on to the attack with loud shouts; but their undisciplined courage could not long stand the shock of the regular battalions; and though Barbarossa, with admirable presence of mind, and by exposing his own person to the greatest dangers, endeavoured to rally them, the rout became so general, that he himself was hurried along with them in their flight back to the city. There he found everything in the utmost confusion; some of the inhabitants flying with their families and effects; others, ready to set open their gates to the conqueror; the Turkish soldiers preparing to retreat, and the citadel, which in such circumstances might have afforded him some refuge, already in the possession of the Christian captives. These unhappy men, rendered desperate by their situation, had seized the opportunity which Barba-

rossa dreaded. As soon as his army was within a little distance of the town, they gained over two of their keepers, by whose assistance, knocking off their fetters, and bursting open their prisons, they overpowered the Turkish garrison, and turned the artillery of the fort against their former masters. Barbarossa, disappointed and enraged, exclaiming sometimes against the false compassion of his officers, and sometimes condemning his own imprudent compliance with their opinion, fled precipitately to Bona.

Meanwhile Charles, satisfied with the easy and almost bloodless victory which he had gained, and advancing slowly with the precaution necessary in an enemy's country, did not yet know the whole extent of his good fortune. But at last a messenger, dispatched by the slaves, acquainted him with the success of their noble effort for the recovery of their liberty; and at the same time, deputies arrived from the town, in order to present him the keys of the gates, and to implore his protection from military violence. While he was deliberating concerning the proper measures for this purpose, the soldiers, fearing that they should be deprived of the booty which they had expected, rushed suddenly, and without orders, into the town, and began to kill and plunder without distinction. It was then too late to restrain their cruelty, their avarice, or licentiousness. All the outrages of which soldiers are capable in the

fury of a storm, all the excesses of which men can be guilty, when their passions are heightened by the contempt and hatred which difference in manners and religion inspire, were committed. Above thirty thousand of the innocent inhabitants perished on that unhappy day, and ten thousand were carried away as slaves. Muley Hascen took possession of a throne surrounded with carnage, abhorred by his subjects, on whom he had brought such calamities, and pitied even by those whose rashness had been the occasion of them. The Emperor lamented the fatal accident which had stained the lustre of his victory ; and amidst such a scene of horror there was but one spectacle that afforded him any satisfaction. Ten thousand Christian slaves, among whom were several persons of distinction, met him as he entered the town, and falling on their knees, thanked and blessed him as their deliverer.

At the same time that Charles accomplished his promise to the Moorish King, of re-establishing him in his dominions, he did not neglect what was necessay for bridling the power of the African corsairs, for the security of his own subjects, and for the interest of the Spanish Crown. In order to gain these ends, he concluded a treaty with Muley Hascen, on the following conditions :—" That he should hold the Kingdom of Tunis in fee of the Crown of Spain, and do homage to the Emperor as his liege lord ; that all the Christian slaves now within his domi-

nions, of whatever nation, should be set at liberty without ransom ; that no subject of the Emperor's should, for the future, be detained in servitude ; that no Turkish corsair should be admitted into the ports of his dominions ; that free trade, together with the public exercise of the Christian religion, should be allowed to the Emperor's subjects ; that the Emperor should not only retain the Golletta, but that all the other sea-ports in the kingdom which were fortified should be put into his hands ; that Muley Hascen should pay, annually, twelve thousand crowns, for the subsistence of the Spanish garrison in the Golletta; that he should enter into no alliance with any of the Emperor's enemies, and should present to him every year, as an acknowledgment of his vassalage, " six Moorish horses, and as many hawks." Having thus settled the affairs of Africa, chastised the insolence of the corsairs, secured a safe retreat for the ships of his subjects, and a proper station to his own fleets, on that coast from which he was most infected by piratical depredations, Charles embarked again for Europe, August 17th, 1535, the tempestuous weather and sickness amongst his troops, not permitting him to pursue Barbarossa.

Twenty thousand slaves, whom he freed from bondage, either by his arms, or by his treaty with Muley Hascen, each of whom he clothed and furnished with the means of returning to their respec-

tive countries, spread all over Europe the fame of their benefactor's munificence, extolling his power and abilities with the exaggeration flowing from gratitude and admiration.

In 1541, Algiers still continued in that state of dependence on the Turkish Empire to which Barbarossa had subjected it. Ever since he, as Captain Basha, commanded the Ottoman fleet, Algiers had been governed by Hascen Aga, a Sardinian renegade, who, by passing through every station in the corsairs' service, had acquired such experience in war, that he was well fitted for a station which required a man of tried and daring courage. Hascen, in order to show how well he deserved that dignity, carried on his piratical depredations against the Christian states with great activity, and outdid, if possible, Barbarossa himself, in boldness and cruelty. The commerce of the Mediterranean was greatly interrupted by his cruisers, and such frequent alarms given to the coast of Spain, that watch towers were obliged to be erected at proper distances, and guards kept constantly on foot, in order to descry the approach of his squadrons, and to protect the inhabitants from their descents. Of this the Emperor had received repeated and clamorous

complaints from his subjects, who represented it as an enterprise corresponding to his power, and becoming his humanity, to reduce Algiers, which, since the conquest of Tunis, was the common receptacle of all the free-booters, and to exterminate that lawless race.

THE SECOND EXPEDITION OF CHARLES THE FIFTH AGAINST THE CORSAIRS.

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The Emperor, moved partly by these entreaties, and partly allured by the hope of adding to the glory which he had acquired by his last expedition into Africa, issued orders both in Spain and Italy to prepare a fleet and army for this purpose, which was accordingly raised, but unfortunately he would persist in sailing at a dangerous period of the year, and with such determined obstinacy, that he paid no regard to the Pope who advised, or to the Admiral, Andrew Doria, who conjured him not to expose his whole armament to almost unavoidable destruction, by venturing to approach the dangerous coast of Algiers at such an advanced season, when the autumnal winds were so violent.

Having embarked on board Doria's galleys at Porto Venere in the Genoese territories, he soon found that this experienced sailor had not judged wrongly concerning the element with which he was so well acquainted; for such a storm arose, that it was with

the utmost difficulty and danger he reached Sardinia, the place of general rendezvous. But as his courage was undaunted, and his temper often inflexible, neither the renewed remonstrances of the Pope and Doria, nor the danger to which he had already been exposed by disregarding their advice, had any other effect than to confirm him in his fatal resolution. The force, indeed, which he had collected, was such as might have inspired a prince less adventurous and less confident in his own schemes, with the most sanguine hopes of success. It consisted of twenty thousand foot, and two thousand horse, Spaniards, Italians, and Germans, mostly veterans, together with three thousand volunteers, the flower of the Spanish and Italian nobility, fond of paying court to the Emperor, by attending him in his favourite expedition, and eager to share in the glory which they believed he was going to reap ; to these were added a thousand soldiers, sent from Malta, by the order of St. John, led by a hundred of its most gallant Knights.

The voyage from Majorca to the African coast, was not less tedious, or full of hazard, than that which he had just finished. When he approached the land, the roll of the sea and vehemence of the winds, would not permit the troops to disembark ; but at last the Emperor, seizing a favourable opportunity, landed them without opposition, not far from Algiers, and immediately advanced towards

the town. To oppose this mighty army, Hascen had only eight hundred Turks, and five thousand Moors, partly natives of Africa, and partly refugees from Granada. He returned, however, a fierce and haughty answer, when summoned to surrender; but with such a handful of soldiers, neither his desperate courage, nor consummate skill in war, could have long resisted forces superior to those which had defeated Barbarossa at the head of sixty thousand men, and which had reduced Tunis, in spite of all his endeavours to save it.

But however far the Emperor might think himself beyond the reach of any danger from the enemy, he was suddenly exposed to a more dreadful calamity, and one against which human prudence and human efforts availed nothing. On the second day after his landing, and before he had time for anything but to disperse some light armed Arabs, who molested his troops on their march, the clouds began to gather, and the heavens to appear with a fierce and threatening aspect. Towards evening, rain began to fall, accompanied with violent wind; and the rage of the tempest increasing during the night, the soldiers, who had brought nothing ashore but their arms, remained exposed to all its fury, without tents, or shelter, or cover of any kind. The ground was soon so wet, that they could not lie down on it; their camp, being in a low situation, was overflowed with water, and they sunk, at every

step, to the ankles in mud, while the wind blew with such impetuosity, that, to prevent their falling, they were obliged to thrust their spears into the ground, and to support themselves by taking hold of them. Hascen was too vigilant an officer to allow an enemy in such distress to remain unmolested. About the dawn of morning, he sallied out with soldiers, who, having been secured from the storm under their own roofs, were fresh and vigorous. A body of Italians, who were stationed nearest the city, dispirited and benumbed by cold, fled at the approach of the Turks. The troops at the post behind them displayed greater courage ; but as the rain had extinguished their matches, and wetted their powder, muskets were useless ; and having scarcely strength to handle their other arms, they were soon thrown into confusion. Almost the whole army, with the Emperor himself in person, was obliged to advance, before the enemy could be repulsed, who, after spreading such general consternation, and killing a considerable number of men, retired at last in good order.

But all feeling or remembrance of this loss and danger were quickly obliterated by a more dreadful as well as affecting spectacle. It was now broad day ; the hurricane had abated nothing of its violence, and the sea appeared agitated with all the rage of which that destructive element is capable ; all the ships, on which alone, the whole army knew

their safety and subsistence depended, were seen driven from their anchors, some dashing against each other, some beaten to pieces on the rocks, many forced ashore, and not a few sinking in the waves. In less than an hour, fifteen ships of war, and a hundred and forty transports, with eight thousand men, perished, and such of the unhappy crews as escaped the fury of the sea, were murdered without mercy by the Arabs, as soon as they reached land. The Emperor stood, in silent anguish and astonishment beholding this fatal event, which at once blasted all his hopes of success, and buried in the depths the vast stores which he had provided, for annoying the enemy, and for the support of his own troops. He had it not in his power to afford them any other assistance or relief, than by sending troops to drive away the Arabs, and thus delivering a few, who were so fortunate as to get ashore, from the cruel fate which their companions had met with. At last the wind began to fall, and to give some hopes that as many ships might escape as would be sufficient to save the army from perishing by famine, and transport them back again to Europe. But these were only hopes ; the approach of evening covered the sea with darkness, and it being impossible for the officers on board the ships which had outlived the storm, to send any intelligence to their companions who were on shore, they remained during

the night in all the anguish of suspense and uncertainty. Next day a boat, dispatched by Doria, made shift to reach land, with information that having weathered out the storm, to which, during fifty years' knowledge of the sea, he had never seen any equal in fierceness and horror, he had found it necessary to bear away with his shattered ships to Cape Metafuz. He advised the Emperor, as the face of the sky was still lowering and tempestuous, to march with all speed to that place, where the troops could re-embark with greater ease.

Whatever comfort Charles derived from being assured that part of his fleet had escaped, was balanced by the new cares and per plexity in which it involved him with regard to his army. Metafuz was, at least, three days' march from his present camp ; all the provisions which he had brought ashore at his first landing, were now consumed ; his soldiers, worn out with fatigue, were hardly capable of such a march, even in a friendly country, and being dispirited by a succession of hardships, which victory itself would scarcely have rendered tolerable, they were in no condition to undergo new toils. But the situation of the army was such as allowed not one moment for deliberation, nor left it in the least doubtful what to choose. They were ordered immediately to march ; the wounded, the sick, and the feeble being placed in

the centre ; such as seemed most vigorous were stationed in the front and rear. Then the sad effects of what they had suffered began to appear more manifestly than ever, and new calamities were added to all those which they had already endured. Some could hardly bear the weight of their arms ; others, exhausted with the toil of forcing their way through deep, and almost impassable roads, sunk down and died ; many perished by famine, as the whole army subsisted chiefly on roots and berries, or the flesh of horses, killed by the Emperor's order, and distributed among the several battalions ; many were drowned in the brooks, which were so much swollen by the excessive rains, that in passing them, they waded up to the chin ; not a few were killed by the enemy, who, during the greater part of their retreat, alarmed, harassed, and annoyed them night and day. At last they arrived at Metafuz, and the weather being now so calm as to restore their communication with the fleet, they were supplied with plenty of provisions, and cheered with the prospect of safety.

During this dreadful series of calamities, the Emperor discovered great qualities, many of which a long continued flow of prosperity had scarcely afforded him an opportunity of displaying. He appeared conspicuous for firmness and constancy of spirit, for magnanimity, fortitude, humanity, and

compassion. He endured as great hardships as the meanest soldier ; he exposed his own person wherever danger threatened ; he encouraged the desponding, visited the sick and wounded, and animated all by his words and example. When the army embarked, he was among the last who left the shore, although a body of Arabs hovered at no great distance, ready to fall on the rear. By these virtues, Charles atoned, in some degree, for his obstinacy and presumption, in undertaking an expedition so fatal to his subjects.

The calamities which attended this enterprise did not end here ; for no sooner were the forces on board, than a new storm arising, though less furious than the former, scattered the fleet, and obliged them separately to make towards such ports in Spain or Italy, as they could first reach, thus spreading the account of their disasters, with all the circumstances of aggravation and horror, which their imaginations, still under the influence of fear, suggested. The Emperor himself, after escaping great dangers, and being forced into the port of Boujeiah, in Africa, where he was obliged, by contrary winds, to remain several weeks, at last arrived in Spain, in a condition very different from that in which he had returned from his former expedition.

In this enterprise Charles lost upwards of one hundred and twenty ships and galleys, three hun-

dred officers, and eight thousand soldiers and marines, besides those destroyed by the enemy on the re-embarkation, or drowned in the last storm. The number of prisoners was so great, that the Algerines sold some of them, by way of contempt, for an onion a piece.

THE CAPTIVITY OF CERVANTES.

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On the memorable day of the battle of Lepanto, in 1571, which rendered the name of Don John, of Austria, celebrated, the crew of the Marquesa, a galley of his fleet, distinguished themselves above all others, by audaciously boarding the Captain, a ship of Alexandria, killing five hundred Turks, and capturing the royal standard of Egypt. On board of this galley a man excited general admiration by his astonishing intrepidity; although sick of an intermitting fever at the commencement of the battle, he refused to remain below as long as the engagement lasted; and, during eight hours, he was seen, pale and weakened by his disorder, fighting with the greatest resolution, and foremost in danger; he was wounded in three places by arquebus bullets, two lodged in his breast, and the other shattered his arm. Don John, astonished at so much heroism, on enquiring the name of the unknown soldier, was told that it was Miguel

Cervantes, then only twenty-three years old, a name more illustrious than a title for celebrity in arms; he united real genius and nobleness of character, as is proved by the narrative (little known,) of his captivity in Algiers.

In 1575, four years after the battle of Lepanto, Cervantes was sailing from Naples, to Spain, in the Spanish galley, El Sol, with his eldest brother, Rodrigo, and the General of artillery, Quesada, who had been Governor of the Goulette. He had made, since the before mentioned memorable battle, three campaigns in Italy, and displayed the same valour; and was then returning to his native country, after a seven years' absence. Don John had furnished him with letters of recommendation to his brother, Philip the Second, and Cervantes was happy in the idea of advancement for his services; however, on the 26th of September, when all on board were hourly expecting to see the coast of Spain, they found themselves in the midst of an Algerine flotilla, which attacked and obliged them to surrender. Three days after this, Cervantes was a slave at Algiers, loaded with chains, subjected to ill treatment, and beaten with sticks whenever the misery of his situation elicited any complaint.

To heighten his misfortune, the letters of Don John had been found upon him, and his master, Dali, a Greek renegade, an avaricious man, notorious for cruelty even among the Algerines, taking his prisoner for one of the first nobles of Spain, and

thinking to obtain a speedy and heavy ransom, made him suffer all sorts of privations and tortures; but Cervantes, irritated by ill treatment, would not apply to his family to procure his ransom, but employed all the resources of his inventive mind to plan an escape, and he succeeded in liberating himself and several Spanish gentlemen, who submitted themselves to his guidance.

A guide was necessary to take them to Oran, and a Moor, whom he had won by his promises and kindness, agreed to guide them on this their perilous route, which lay through a people cruel and addicted to plunder. But on the first day's journey, this man, frightened, no doubt, by the punishment he should suffer if they were overtaken, left them suddenly, and the fugitives were compelled to return to Algiers, resume their chains, and submit to the anger of their masters.

The father of Cervantes, on learning the captivity of his sons, sold all his property, and remitted it, together with the portions of his unmarried daughters, to Algiers; but the renegade, Dali, refused the offers which Cervantes made him. The ransom of a personage recommended so warmly to the King of Spain, by Don John, he estimated at a high price, and disdainfully refused the small sum, which was the entire wealth of the family; but he offered to take it as the ransom of Rodrigo; as to Miguel, he considered him, as much higher than a common

captive. This bargain was reluctantly agreed to by the brothers, and Rodrigo was released.

Cervantes instructed his brother to obtain a frigate from the Viceroy of Valencia, which was to come to a certain part of the Algerian coast, and take Cervantes and other slaves on board. The vessel was sent; but just as they were on the point of embarking, the scheme was defeated by some Moors, who came by accident near the spot. The boats, which had nearly reached the shore, were obliged to return to the frigate, leaving the unfortunate slaves to their captivity without any hope of ever again seeing their country.

Besides this, a renegade, who was privy to the attempt, informed the Pacha of their conspiracy, on which they became the property of the latter (according to the custom of Algiers in such cases) who loaded them with chains, and treated them with the greatest inhumanity.

Cervantes generously declared himself the sole author of this plot, and he was brought before Hassan Pacha, who employed every artifice to discover his accomplices. Flattery, hope of liberty, and threats of instant execution, were all fruitlessly tried to persuade or intimidate him. Hassan suspected that the Fathers of Mercy, who were then engaged in negotiating the sale of slaves at Algiers, were secretly concerned in the attempt at escape, and he hoped to elicit an accusation against them by Cervantes,

in order to enable him to confiscate their treasures, and sell them as slaves. But Cervantes remained steadfast in his denials ; he declared that he alone had conceived the project, and that he had wished to rescue his comrades without even communicating to them before hand his plans for success. The Pacha, finding him inflexible, loaded him with chains, and deprived him of all communication with the others.

In this situation he languished two years ; sometimes he was better treated than his companions, from the hope which Hassan entertained, of obtaining a heavy ransom.

The description which Cervantes has left of these horrible prisons, is as follows :—

" Although hunger and nakedness made us experience dreadful sufferings, they were light compared to those of some of our friends. Our spirits failed in witnessing the unheard of cruelties that Hassan exercised in his bagnio. Every day were new punishments, accompanied with cries of cursing and vengeance ; almost daily a captive was thrown upon the hooks, impaled, or deprived of sight, and that without any other motive than to gratify the thirst of human blood natural to this monster, and which inspired even the executioners with horror."

Indignation inflamed the zeal of Cervantes, and he organised a fresh conspiracy. This time he

planned the liberation of twenty-five thousand Christian slaves, and then, with their aid, to make himself master of Algiers, and submit it to the dominion of Philip the Second. He had succeeded so far as to effect his own escape, and he was furthering his plot in the other bagnios with the greatest skill and courage, when he was betrayed by some renegades, as a price had been set upon his head.

He was dragged to the Dey's palace, in the midst of an outrageous and insulting mob, loaded with chains, a cord round his neck, and followed by the instruments of execution. He replied to the interrogatories which were put to him with so much courage and presence of mind, as to efface all the Dey's suspicions respecting his accomplices. Nothing could induce this generous man to accuse them; but he artfully named four gentlemen, whom he knew to be in safety in Spain. Hassan was struck with this greatness of soul, which it was impossible to intimidate, he forbid his being ill treated, as he considered that he was a Spaniard of the first rank and importance, and he dreaded a severe retaliation from that country, if Cervantes were put to death. He placed a strong guard over him, saying, "While I have this Spaniard secure, I consider that my capital, slaves, and galleys are safe."

After enduring five years of this terrible life, the Fathers of Mercy were ordered to purchase his free-

dom. When they arrived on this errand, they found that Hassan had been disgraced, and had embarked on board a vessel, with Cervantes and other slaves, preparatory to sailing for Constantinople. At this critical moment new difficulties arose respecting the ransom ; but the Fathers ultimately consented to the terms demanded, and Cervantes at length enjoyed what he has himself expressed as " One of the greatest pleasures that can be experienced in this world, which is, to return safe and well to your native country, after a long slavery."

Hassan, elated with this victory, in which he had very little share, undertook an expedition against the King of Tremecen, who, being now deprived of the assistance of the Spaniards, was forced to procure a peace, by paying a considerable sum of money, and becoming tributary to him. The Bashaw returned to Algiers, loaded with riches, and soon after died of a fever, in the sixty-sixth year of his age.

From this time, the Spaniards were never able to annoy the Algerines in any considerable degree. In 1555, they lost the city of Boujeiah, which was taken by Salha Rais, Hassan's successor, who the following year set out on a new expedition, which was kept a secret, though suspected to be intended against Oran ; but he had hardly got four leagues from Algiers, when the plague, which at that time raged violently in the city, carried him off in twenty-four hours.

Immediately after his death, the Algerine soldiery chose a Corsican renegade, Hassan Corso, in his room, till they should receive further orders from the Porte. He did not accept of the Bashawship with a great deal of difficulty ; but immediately prosecuted the intended expedition against Oran, dispatching a messenger to acquaint the Porte with what had happened. They had hardly commenced hostilities against the place, when orders came from the Porte, expressly forbidding Hassan Corso to begin the siege, or, if he had began it, enjoining him to raise it immediately. This news disappointed the whole fleet and army, as they considered themselves sure of success, the garrison being at that time very weak. Nevertheless, as they dared not disobey, the siege was immediately raised.

Corso had hardly enjoyed his dignity four months, before news arrived that eight galleys were bringing a new Bashaw to succeed him ; one Tekelli, a principal Turk of the Grand Seignior's court: upon which the Algerines unanimously resolved not to admit him. By the treachery of the Levantine soldiers, however, he was admitted at last, and the unfortunate Corso thrown over a wall in which a number of iron hooks were fixed ; one of which catching the ribs of his right side, he hung three days in the most dreadful torture before he expired.

Tekelli behaved with such cruelty and rapacity, that he was assassinated even under the dome of a

saint, by Yusef Calabres, the favourite renegado of Hassan Corso ; who for this service was unanimously chosen Bashaw, but died of the plague six days after his election.

Yusef was succeeded by Hassan the son of Hayradin who had been formerly recalled from his Bashawship, when he was succeeded by Selah Rais ; and now had the good fortune to get himself reinstated in his employment. Immediately on his arrival, he engaged in a war with the Arabs, by whom he was defeated with great loss. The next year, the Spaniards undertook an expedition against Mostaganem, under the command of the Count d'Alcandela ; but were utterly defeated, the commander himself killed, and twelve thousand taken prisoners. This disaster was owing to the inconsiderate rashness of the Count who, finding it impossible to rally his scattered forces, rushed, sword in hand, into the thickest of the enemy's ranks, at the head of a small party, crying out " St. Iago ! St. Iago ! the victory is ours, the enemy is defeated." Soon after which he was thrown from his horse, and trampled to death.

Hassan having had the misfortune to disoblige his subjects, by allowing the mountaineers of Cuco to buy ammunition at Algiers, was sent in irons to Constantinople, while the Aga of the Janisaries, and general of the land forces, supplied his place. Hassan easily found means to clear himself ; but a new

Bashaw was appointed, called Achmet, who was no sooner arrived than he sent the two deputy Bashaws to Constantinople, where their heads were struck off. Achmet was a man of such insatiable avarice, that upon his arrival at Algiers, all ranks of people came in crowds to make him presents; which he the more greedily accepted, as he had bought his dignity by the money he had amassed while head gardener to the Sultan. He enjoyed it, however only four months; and after his death, the state was governed four months by his lieutenant: when Hassan was a third time sent viceroy to Algiers, where he was received with the greatest demonstrations of joy.

The first enterprise in which Hassan engaged, was the siege of Marsalquiver, situated near the city of Oran, which he designed to invest immediately after. The army, employed in this siege, consisted of twenty six thousand foot, and ten thousand horse, besides which, he had a fleet consisting of thirty two galleys and galliots, together with three French vessels loaded with provisions. The city was defended by Don Martin de Cordova, brother of the Count d'Alcandela, who had been taken prisoner in the battle in which that nobleman was killed. He had obtained his liberty from the Algerines, and now made a most gallant defence against the Turks. The city was attacked with the utmost fury by sea and land, so that several breaches were made in the walls, on which the Turkish standards were several times

planted, and as often dislodged; but the place must in the end have submitted, had not Hassan, on the news that the celebrated Genoese admiral, Doria, was approaching with considerable succours from Italy, been obliged to raise the siege in haste. The fleet accordingly arrived soon after, but missing the Algerine galleys, bore away for Pennon de Valez, where they were disgracefully repulsed by a handful of Turks, who garrisoned that place; which, however, was taken the following year.

In 1567, Hassan was again recalled to Constantinople, where he died three years after. He was succeeded by Mahomet, who gained the love of the Algerines by several public spirited actions. He incorporated the Janisaries and Levantine Turks and by that means put an end to their dissensions, thus laying the foundation of the Algerine independency on the Porte. He also added some considerable fortifications to the city and castle, which he designed to render impregnable; but while he was thus studying the interests of Algiers,

JOHN GASCON.

A BOLD, Spanish adventurer, formed a design of surprising the whole piratic navy in the bay, and setting the ships on fire in the night time, when they lay defenceless, and the sailors in their first sleep. For this he had not only the permission of King Philip

the Second, but was furnished by him with proper vessels, mariners, and fire-works, for the execution of his plot. With these he set sail for Algiers, in the most proper season, viz : the beginning of October, when most, if not all, the ships lay at anchor there; and easily sailed near enough, unsuspected, to view their manner of riding, in order to catch them off their guard, at a time when the greater part of their crews were dispersed in their quarters. He came, accordingly, unperceived by any, to the very mole gate, and dispersed his men with their fire-works; but to their great surprise, they found them so badly mixed, that they could not make them take fire. In the mean time Gascon took it into his head, by way of bravado, to go to the mole gate, and give three loud knocks at it with the pommel of his dagger, and to leave it fixed in the gate by its point, that the Algerines might have cause to remember him. This he had the good fortune to do without meeting with any disturbance or opposition; but it was not so with his men; for no sooner did they find their endeavours unsuccessful than they made such a bustle as quickly alarmed the guard posted on the adjacent bastion, from which the uproar quickly spread itself through the whole garrison. Gascon finding himself in the greatest danger, sailed away with all possible haste: but he was pursued, overtaken and brought back a prisoner to Mahomet; who no sooner got him into his power,

than he immediately caused a jibbet of considerable height to be erected on the spot where Gascon had landed, ordering him to be hoisted up, and hung by the feet to a hook, that he might die in torture; and, to show his resentment and contempt of the King, his master, he ordered his commission to be tied to his toes. He had not, however, hung long in that state, when the Captain who took him, accompanied by a number of other corsairs, interceded so strongly in his behalf, that he was taken down and put under the care of some Christian surgeons; but two days after, some Moors, reporting that it was the common talk and belief in Spain, that the Algerines dare not hurt a hair of Gascon's head, &c., the unfortunate Spaniard was hoisted up by a pulley to the top of the execution wall, and let down again upon the hooks, which, in his fall, caught him in the body, and killed him.

Thus ended the expedition of John Gascon, which procured him a place among the Spanish martyrs, while on the other hand, the Algerines look upon his disappointment as miraculous, and owing to the efficacious protection of the powerful Saint, whose prayers had before raised such a terrible storm against the Spanish fleet.

Mahomet, being soon after recalled, was succeeded by the famous renegade, Ochali, who reduced the Kingdom of Tunis; which, however, remained subject to the Viceroy of Algiers, only till the year

1586, when a Bashaw of Tunis was appointed by the Porte.

The kingdom of Algiers continued to be governed, till the beginning of the seventeenth century, by viceroys, or Bashaws, appointed by the Porte, whose avarice, and tyranny, were intolerable both to the Algerines, and the Turks themselves. At last the Turkish Janizaries and Militia became powerful enough to depose these petty tyrants, and set up officers of their own. They sent a deputation of some of their chief members to the Porte, to complain of the avarice and oppression of these Bashaws, and represent how much more honorable, as well as more economical it would be, for the Grand Seignior, to permit them to choose from among themselves, their own Dey, or Governor, whose interest it would be to see, that the revenue of the kingdom was duly employed in keeping up its forces complete, and in supplying all other exigences of the state, without any further charge or trouble to the Porte, than that of allowing them its protection. On their part, they engaged always to acknowledge the Grand Seignior as their sovereign, to pay him their usual allegiance and tribute, to respect his Bashaws, and to lodge and maintain them and their retinues. All concerns which related to the government of Algiers, were to be left under the direction of the Dey and his Douwan.

These proposals having been accepted by the Porte, the Deputies returned highly satisfied ; and having notified their new privileges the great Douwan immediately proceeded to the election of a Dey, from among themselves. Altercations, however, frequently happened between the Bashaws and Deys ; the one endeavouring to recover their former power, and the other to reduce it.

In the year 1601, the Spaniards, under the command of Doria, the Genoese Admiral, made another attmept upon Algiers, in which they were more fortunate than usual, their fleet being only driven back by contrary winds, so that they came off without loss. In 1609 the Moors being expelled from Spain, flocked in great numbers to Algiers ; and as many of them were very able sailors, they undoubtedly contributed to raise the Algerine fleet to that formidable condition, which it so soon reached, though it is probable, the frequent attempts made on their city would also induce them to increase their fleet. In 1616, it consisted of forty sail of ships, between two hundred and four hundred tons, their flag ship being five hundred tons. It was divided into two squadrons, one of eighteen sail, stationed before the port of Malaga, and the other at the cape of Santa Maria, between Lisbon, and Seville, both of which attacked all Christian ships, both English and French, with whom they pre-

tended in friendship, as well as Spaniards and Portuguese with whom they were at war.

The Algerines were now become very formidable to the European powers. The Spaniards who were most in danger, and least able to cope with them, solicited the assistance of England, and other states, and the Pope. The French, however, were the first who dared to show their resentment of these outrages, and in 1617, M. Beaulieu was sent against the Algerines with a fleet of fifty men-of-war, who defeated their fleet and took two of their vessels, while their admiral sunk his own ship and crew, rather than fall into his enemy's hands.

In 1620, a squadron of English men-of-war, was sent against Algiers, under the command of Sir Robert Mansel, but of this expedition we have no other account than that it returned without effecting anything; and the Algerines becoming more and more insolent, openly defied all the European powers, the Dutch only excepted, to whom, in 1625, they sent a proposal directed to the Prince of Orange, that in case they would fit out twenty sail of ships, the following year, upon any good service against the Spaniards, they would join them with sixty sail of their own.

The next year the Cologlies, who were enrolled in the militia, having seized on the casbah or citadel, had nearly made themselves masters of the city, but were attacked by the Turks and Renegadoes,

who defeated them with terrible slaughter, many of them were put death, and their heads thrown in heaps upon the city walls outside the gate of Bab Azoune. Part of the casbah was blown up, and the remaining Cologlies were dismissed from the militia to which they were not again admitted till long after.

In the year 1623, Algiers and the other states of Barbary, threw off altogether their dependance on the Porte. No sooner was this resolution taken, than the Algerines began to make prizes of several merchant ships belonging to powers at peace with the Porte. Having seized a Dutch ship and poleacre at Scanderoon, they ventured on shore, and finding the town abandoned by the Turkish Aga and inhabitants, they plundered all the magazines and warehouses and set them on fire. About this time Louis the Thirteenth undertook to build a fort on their coasts, in the room of one formerly built by the Marsilians, which they had demolished. This, after some difficulty, he accomplished, and it was called the Bastion of France; but the situation being afterwards found inconvenient, the French purchased the Porte of La Calle and obtained liberty to trade with the Arabs and Moor. The Ottoman Porte; in the mean time, was so much embarrassed with the Persian war, that there was no leisure to check the Algerine piracies. This gave an opportunity to the Vizier and other courtiers to

compound with the Algerines, and share their prizes, which were very considerable. However, for form's sake, a severe reprimand accompanied with threats was sent them, to which they replied that "these depredations deserved to be indulged to them, seeing they were the only bulwark against the christian powers, especially against the Spaniards, the sworn enemies of the moslem name," adding that "if they should play a punctilious regard to all that could purchase peace, or liberty to trade with the Ottoman Empire, they would have nothing to do but set fire to all their shipping and turn camel drivers for a livelihood."

In the year 1635, four younger brothers of a good family in France, determined to retort the piracies of the Algerines upon them, with a small frigate of ten guns. In this undertaking a hundred volunteers embarked, a Maltese commission was procured, together with an able master and thirty six marines. They had the good fortune on their first setting out to take a ship loaded with wine, upon the Spanish coast, with which they were so much elated, that three days after they encountered two large Algerine corsairs, one of twenty and the other of twenty four guns, both well manned and commanded by able officers, these vessels attacked the frigate so furiously that she soon lost her main mast, notwithstanding which the French made so desperate a resistance that the pirates were not able to take

them, till the noise of their fire brought up five more Algerines, when the French vessel being almost torn to pieces, was boarded and taken. The brothers were punished for their temerity, by a dreadful captivity, from which they redeemed themselves in 1642, at the price of six thousand dollars.

The Algerines prosecuted their piracies with impunity, to the terror and disgrace of the Europeans, till the year 1652, when a French fleet being driven accidentally to Algiers, the Admiral took it into his head to demand a release of all the captives of his nation, without exception. This being refused, the Frenchman, without ceremony, carried off the Turkish Viceroy and his cadi, or judge, who had just arrived from the Porte, with all their equipage and retinue. The Algerines, by way of reprisal, surprised the Bastion of France already mentioned, and carried off the inhabitants to the number of six hundred, with all their effects, which so provoked the Admiral, that he sent them word that he would pay them another visit the next year with his whole fleet.

The Algerines, undismayed by the threats of the French Admiral, fitted out a fleet of about sixteen galleys and galliots, well manned and equipped, under the command of Admiral Hali Pinchinin. The chief design of this armament was to capture the treasure of Loretto, which, however, they were prevented, by contrary winds, from reaching. They then made a descent on the Puglia, in the kingdom

of Naples, where they ravaged the whole territory of Necotra, carrying off a considerable number of captives. Thence steering towards Dalmatia, they scoured the Adriatic, and having collected immense plunder, left these coasts in the utmost consternation and resentment

At last, the Venetians, alarmed at such terrible depredations, equipped a fleet of twenty-eight sail, under the command of Admiral Capello, with express orders to burn, sink, or take, all the Barbary corsairs he met with, either on the open seas, or even in the Grand Seignior's harbours, pursuant to a late treaty of peace with the Porte. On the other hand, the captain bashaw, who had been sent out with the Turkish fleet, to chase the Florentine and Maltese cruisers, out of the Archipelago, understanding that the Algerine squadron was so near, sent express orders to the Admiral to come to his assistance. Pinchinin readily agreed ; but having first resolved on a descent upon the island of Lissa, or Lisina, belonging to the Venetians, he was overtaken by Capello, from whom he retired to Valona, a sea port belonging to the Grand Seignior, where the Venetian Admiral pursued him ; but the Turkish Governor refusing to eject the pirates, according to the articles of the peace between the Ottoman court and Venice, Capello was obliged to content himself with watching them for some time. Pinchinin was soon weary of restraint, and ventured out, when an

engagement immediately ensued in which the Algerines were defeated, and five of their vessels disabled, with the loss of one thousand, five hundred men, Turks and Christian slaves, besides one thousand, six hundred galley slaves, who regained their liberty. Pinchinin, after this defeat, returned to Valona, where he was again watched by Capello; but the latter had not been long at his old anchorage, before he received a letter from the Senate, desiring him to make no further attempt on the pirates at that time, for fear of a rupture with the Porte. This was followed by a letter from the Governor of Valona, desiring him to beware of incurring the Sultan's displeasure by such insults. The brave Venetian was forced to comply; but resolving to take such a leave of the Algerines, as he thought they deserved, observed how they had pitched their tents, and drawn their booty and equipage along the shore. He then kept firing at their tents, while some well manned galliots and brigantines were ordered among their shipping, who attacked them with such bravery that, without any great loss, they towed out their sixteen galleys, with all their cannon, stores, &c. In this last engagement, a ball from one of the Venetian galleys happening to strike a Turkish Mosque, the whole action was taken as an insult upon the Grand Seignior. To conceal this, Capello was ordered to sink all the Algerine ships he had taken, except the

Admiral, which was to be conducted to Venice, and laid up as a trophy. Capello came off with a severe reprimand ; but the Venetians were obliged to buy, with five hundred thousand ducats, a peace with the Porte. The Grand Seignior offered to repair the loss of the Algerines by building ten galleys for them, upon condition that they should continue in his service till the end of the ensuing Summer ; but Pinchinin, who knew how little the Algerines chose to lie under obligations to him, civilly declined the offer.

In the mean time the news of this defeat and loss filled Algiers with the utmost grief and confusion. The whole city was on the point of a general insurrection, when the Bashaw and Douwan issued a proclamation forbidding complaints and outcries, under the severest penalties. In the meantime they applied to the Porte for an order, that the Venetians, settled in the Levant, should make up their loss. But with this the Grand Seignior refused to comply, and left them to repair their losses, as well as build new ships in the best manner they could. Soon after this, one of their corsairs landed with a fresh supply of six hundred slaves, whom he had brought from the coast of Iceland, where he had been directed by an Icelander, taken on board a Danish ship.

The Algerines did not long continue in their weak and defenceless state ; being able, at the end

of two years, to appear at sea with a fleet of sixty-five sail. The Admiral Pinchinin equipped four galliots at his own expense, with which, in conjunction with the Chiayah, or Secretary of the Bashaw of Tripoli, he made a second excursion. This small squadron, consisting of five galleys and two brigantines, fell in with an English ship of forty guns, which, however, Pinchinin's captains refused to engage; but being afterwards reproached by him for their cowardice, they swore to attack the next Christian ship which came in their way. This happened to be a Dutch merchantman of twenty-eight guns, and forty men, deeply laden, and unable to use her sails, as it was a calm. Pinchinin immediately summoned her to surrender; but receiving an ironical answer, drew up his squadron in the shape of a half moon, that they might pour their shot all at once into their adversary. This, however, the Dutchman avoided, by means of a breeze which fortunately sprung up, and enabled him to turn his ship, upon which the galleys run foul of each other. Pinchinin then ran his own galley along side of the merchantman, the upper deck of which seventy Algerines immediately took possession of, some of them cutting the rigging, and others plying the hatches with hand grenadoes; but the Dutchmen having secured themselves in their close quarters, began to fire at the Algerines on board, from two pieces of cannon, loaded with small shot, by which

they were all soon killed, or forced to submit. Pinchinin, in the mean time, made several unsuccessful attempts to relieve his men, as well as to surround the Dutchman with his other galleys ; but that ship lay so deep in the water, that every shot did terrible execution among the pirates, so that they were obliged to remove further off. At last the Dutch captain, having ordered his guns to be loaded with cartouches, gave them such a parting volley, that it killed two hundred of them, and sent the rest back to Algiers, in a most melancholy condition.

But though Pinchinin went back in disgrace, the rest of the fleet soon returned with numerous slaves, and an immense quantity of rich spoils, and the English, French, and Dutch, were obliged to cringe to the mighty Algerines, who sometimes condescended to be at peace with them ; but swore eternal war against Spain, Portugal, and Italy, whom they regarded as the greatest enemies to all of their religion.

They now began to pay some regard to other nations, and to be a little cautious how they wantonly incurred their displeasure. The first bombardment by the French had so far humbled the Algerines, that they condescended to enter into a treaty with England, which was renewed upon terms very advantageous to the latter, in 1686. It was not to be supposed, however, that the natural perfidy of the Algerines would disappear suddenly ; not-

withstanding this treaty, therefore, they lost no opportunity of making prizes of the English ships, when they could conveniently capture them. Upon some infringement of this kind, Captain Beach drove ashore, and burnt seven of their frigates in 1695, which produced a renewal of the treaty five years after ; but it was not till the taking of Gibraltar, that Britain could have a sufficient check upon them to enforce the observation of treaties.

In 1710, they expelled the Turkish Bashaw, and united his office to that of Dey. This introduced the form of government which continued in Algiers to the French conquest.

EXPEDITIONS OF DUQUESNE.

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In 1681, Louis the Fourteenth, determined on sending a force against the Algerines, under the command of this celebrated commander.

On this, Renau of Elicagaray, who had tried new systems of constructing vessels, proposed to the council to bombard Algiers with a fleet; this proposition appeared little better than madness, as, at that time, it was considered that mortars could only be fired on solid ground, Renau was treated as a visionary, but he defended his cause with that eloquence and firmness, which arises from genius conscious of its own strength, and Louis the fourteenth permitted him to make a trial of the invention. Upon this, Renau constructed at Havre and Dunkerque, five vessels of middling size, but very strong and with flat bottoms. Each of them was able to carry two mortars before the mainmast, and four pieces of cannon on each side of the poop.

They were equal in size to vessels of fifty guns, but of greater solidity, in order to resist the reaction of the bomb. In battle, it was intended to present the head to the enemy, in order to offer the least surface. The mortars of twelve or fourteen inches were fixed upon an inclination of forty-five degrees, the most favorable to the length of the tier. They rested upon a wooden platform supported by alternate beds of large timbers and cables. The most complete success crowned the first experiments of Renau, and proved that he had solved the problem of forming vessels strong enough to support the firing of a mortar.

They had considered it impossible to construct vessels of this nature, and they now doubted the possibility of navigating them with safety. Renau embarked on board the bomb vessels at Havre to join those at Dunkerque. The one he was in experienced a most dreadful storm, near the road of Dunkerque. The tempest threw down a bastion of that city, broke the dykes of Holland, and submerged ninety vessels upon the coast; but the galliot of Renau, although repeatedly washed over by the sea, escaped this disaster upon the sands of Flessingue, and arrived in safety at Dunkerque.

On the 21st. of July 1682, the armament, composed of eleven ships of war, fifteen galleys and five bomb galliots, two fire ships and some Tartans, under the command of Duquesne, arrived at Algiers,

the admiral had calculated upon the calm weather, which commonly prevails on this coast during the summer, and immediately gave orders for the attack, but after some broad-sides there arose so violent a wind, that it was with difficulty the vessels could gain the open sea. Duquesne decided upon sending the galleys back to France, and to act only with the bombs and the ships.

According to his original intentions, the vessels were to have towed the vessels within half cannon shot of the place, which would have greatly facilitated the means of attack. Unable to carry that intention into effect, he had recourse to an expedient which proved successful. Some anchors with cables attached were carried by some shalloops very near to the port, to these they fastened some cables, the other ends of which were given to five vessels at a short distance, the galliots were then hauled in by the cables, which furnished them at the same time with the means of returning.

They commenced firing, and Renau, mounted on a bomb vessel called the Fulminant, was eagerly looking for the effect of the projectiles, when a carcase, which they were going to discharge from a mortar ignited before its time, and threatened to set fire to the sails and to some linstocks. The crew of this vessel, terrified and dreading the explosion of two hundred bombs which they had on board, escaped by swimming, in spite of the orders

of the captain and of Renau, and the other galliots discontinuing the action put to sea hastily, to avoid being sunk by the explosion of this dreadful machine, which flaming violently attracted the fire of the Algerine artillery. In the mean time, an officer, desirous of seeing if any one was on board, and if there was no chance of saving it, forced a part of his crew to accompany him on board the galliot, where they saw Renau and two other men busily employed in covering more than eighty loaded bombs with leather. They at length extinguished the fire, and that vessel was the first which threw bombs, and continued the discharge till day break.

Several slaves who during the tumult had swam from Algiers to the vessels, stated that the utmost disorder and terror reigned in the city, that the projectiles had killed considerable numbers, thrown down several houses, and crushed more than two hundred persons under the ruins of the grand mosque which was completely destroyed, that most of the Algerines had taken refuge in the mountains, and that a large party, in open insurrection, wished to oblige Baba Hassan to send an Envoy to the French Admiral. This was not complied with, and the following night the galliots recommenced a well directed fire. The confusion was still more horrible, and on the 4th. of September, P. Levacher, the French Consul and apostolic vicar of Algiers, came to request peace from Duquesne, and to beg of him

on the part of the assembled divan not to throw any more bombs ; but the Admiral having required the the restoration of four hundred slaves of French origin previous to any negotiation, the Algerines revolted against the Divan and hostilities recommenced. Although half their city had been reduced to ashes they were recovered from their terror, and it is asserted that the Dey, learning the immense sum which the armament had cost, said, that if Louis the Fourteenth had offered him half the money, he would have burnt the whole city himself.

Time was lost in negotiation, the wind rose suddenly and Duquesne was obliged to return, leaving some vessels to blockade the port, until a new expedition was sent the following year.

During the winter the French constructed a great many galliots, and they formed for this service a new corps of artillerymen and bombardiers, Renau had also caused to be cast other mortars, which threw the bombs to a distance of three thousand four hundred yards, that is nearly two miles.

On the 26th and 27th of June, 1683, the French bombarded Algiers with such effect, that a great part of it was set on fire and destroyed. Seven or eight hundred persons were buried under the ruins of the houses, and the utmost disorder reigned among the inhabitants. Women were seen carrying the heads and mutilated members of their children and husbands to the Palace of the Dey, and loudly

demanding peace, the Dey endeavoured to negotiate with Duquesne, but the latter refused to treat before the Algerines had restored all the French slaves, and even the foreigners, who had been captured on board the French vessels. The terror produced by the bombs and the dread of a renewal made them agree to these conditions, and a few days after they restored five hundred and forty six slaves.

On discussing the articles of the treaty, it was agreed that the Dey should deliver hostages, and Duquesne, named Mezzo Morto (Admiral of the Algerine fleet, an Italian renegade) and Ali, captain of the Marine, who were given up without hesitation.

The hostages had scarcely quitted Algiers, when a violent insurrection broke out among the people, and it was impossible to satisfy the demands of the Admiral. The Dey desired his negotiators to make known the danger of his position, the Algerines being master of the city and determined not to listen to any proposition of peace. The hostages were then sent back. Mezzo Morto, at leaving, had promised Duquesne to remove these difficulties, and use his influence with the militia in quieting the people, and getting them to agree to the conditions proposed. But this renegade had no sooner returned to the city, than, assembling the officers of militia, he represented the small number of the French, the pusillanimity of the Dey, raised the populace, and marching at their head, to the Palace of Baba Hassan,

he stabbed him with his own hand, and caused himself to be proclaimed Dey in his place.

Duquesne, believing the false representations of Mezzo Morto, was persuaded that this revolution would serve his projects ; he sent to compliment the new Dey and waited nearly a week for the negotiations to be resumed. But at length, seeing that they were acting perfidiously, he hoisted the red flag and fired two guns. The Algerines raised, also, the standard of war, and fired from their batteries.

At night the French attacked with fury. The carcase bombs produced the most disastrous effects. What escaped the destructive action of these engines, became a prey to the flames. The defence of the Algerines was energetic, but their want of experience prevented them from doing much harm to the fleet. Soon their exultation gave place to rage, and they committed numerous acts of barbarity.

On the 29th of July, Mezzo Morto, irritated by the ravages perpetrated every night, accused P. Levacher, the French consul, of having made signals to the fleet, and gave him the choice of apostacy or death. The consul replied that he was ready to go to the scaffold. Accordingly he was tied to the mouth of a large cannon upon the mole, and fired towards the French squadron.

The besiegers still continued a most destructive fire, and the Algerines revenged themselves by repeating upon some slaves, remaining in Algiers, the

same atrocities that they had committed towards Levacher. Not a day passed without these terrible scenes being renewed, and about forty of them submitted to this frightful treatment.

Among the slaves was the Chevalier de Choiseul, a French, naval officer, who had long cruised in the Levant. He was already tied to the fatal cannon, when he was recognized by the captain of a Turkish caraval, who had formerly been made prisoner by the Chevalier, and who had treated him with much kindness and then set him free' Gratitude led this Turk to an act of devotedness, which might have been fatal to him. He rushed to the mouth of the cannon, and attached himself to the Chevalier already resigned to his execution. He declared that he owed his life to him, and that he would die with him or obtain his pardon. He did obtain it, and M. Choiseul was re-conducted to the bagnio, and delivered up when peace was concluded.

Mezzo Morto defended himself vigorously, in spite of the incessant insurrections which disturbed Algiers, till the arrival of the bad season, when Duquesne, whose provisions and ammunition were exhausted, was obliged to return without reducing the city.

Nearly six hundred slaves had been restored, numerous vessels sunk or burnt in the port, and Algiers was little more than a heap of ruins. The punishment was severe, and the French flattered

themselves that it would be long before the pirates could be in a condition to act offensively.

With respect to the piece of cannon, from the mouth of which P. Levacher was fired, the Algerines after his execution named it " the consular."

It was cast by a Venetian in 1542, to celebrate the completion of the mole upon which it was mounted.

The direction of this gun, so difficult to manage in consequence of its length and weight, was towards the point Pescade, it threw its shot five thousand yards, or nearly three miles. As soon as an enemy's ship doubled the cape, some clever gunners who were experienced in working it, fired it with such precision as sometimes to destroy the vessel.

In July 1830, on the conquest of Algiers, a hundred and fifty years after the expedition of Duquesne, this piece was sent to Brest, where the author saw it. It is mounted in the "*Place d' Armes,*" on a pedestal with allegories on three of its sides, and an inscription on the fourth.

It is surrounded by a balustrade forty six feet eight inches in circuit, the iron rails represent arrows two feet ten inches long, the interior is paved with flat stones of polished granite ; the gun, forming the shaft of the column twenty feet six inches high, and the pedestal six feet eight inches, the total elevation is twenty seven feet.

This monument is remarkable by the occurrences

it recals; by the beauty of the granite employed for the pedestal, and by the execution of the sculpture. It is surmounted by a gilded cock holding a globe under its claw.

THE DANISH EXPEDITION.

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In 1776, Mahomed the Third was elected Dey. Too prudent to attack the great powers, he determined upon levying extortionate sums from inferior states; and amongst other exactions, he demanded a contribution from Denmark of five thousand piastres, which was particularly exorbitant, as the Danes had scarcely any trade in the Mediterranean. The Danish Consul resisted this demand for a long time; but at length, induced by the example of others, who submitted to similar proposals, he endeavoured to defer the payment, by offering the Dey some rich presents; but Mahomed declined them, and immediately declared war.

On receiving this declaration, the Court of Copenhagen dispatched a squadron of bomb vessels against Algiers. They flattered themselves that this display of strength alone would have great effect, or, if not, that they would be able to reduce the city by bombardment. But the Algerines, in consequence of

Duquesne's expedition, had since added numerous batteries and as they expected the Danish flotilla, they constructed another formidable battery close to the water, which could sweep the entrance of the port to considerable distance.

On the arrival of the Danish squadron, it commenced an active bombardment, but as the shells did not reach the mole, the Algerines conceived the utmost contempt for their assailants, and disdained to return them a single shot.

After a few days' observation, Mahomed, fearing that this fruitless attack might be changed into a blockade, which might have been ruinous to his piracies, determined on assuming the defensive, and hastily constructed some rafts, sufficiently strong to bear artillery, in order to attack the Danish vessels. But the latter sailed away with the first favorable wind, and Denmark was ultimately obliged to purchase peace at an expense of one hundred thousand crowns and two vessels, loaded with ammunition.

The Algerines, proud of their easy triumph, composed a national song eulogising their victory, and ridiculing the defeat of their enemies.

THE EXPEDITION OF GENERAL O'REILLY.

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In 1775, the Spanish government of Charles the Third, at the instigation of its minister Grimaldi, taking advantage of a slight aggression on the part of the Moors, declared war against Algiers.

For this purpose they assembled, at Carthagena, a large fleet, and army, well supplied with a numerous artillery, and all kinds of warlike stores. A greater armament had not left the ports of Spain since the times of Charles the Fifth, and Philip the Second. It consisted of eighteen thousand, two hundred infantry, one thousand horse, and three thousand three hundred sailors, forming together twenty two thousand five hundred men, the élite of the land and sea forces. They embarked in three hundred and forty transports, which were accompanied and protected by forty four vessels of war. This fleet carried also more than a hundred large cannon, consisting of field pieces and a battering train, four thousand mules for the use of the artillery, and a

considerable quantity of provisions. The chief command was given to General O'Reilly and the direction of the fleet to Admiral Castejon.

General O'Reilly was an Irish soldier of fortune, who, after having served several years in Austria, passed into the French army, where he distinguished himself under Marshal Broglie : the Marshal recommended him to the King of Spain who gave him a colonelcy. For his further advancement he was indebted to the favor of the prime minister, Grimaldi, who had been his intimate friend for several years, and it was owing to this circumstance that he obtained the command of the expedition. The responsibility therefore rested between them.

On the 22nd of June 1775, all the preparations being completed, the armada set sail amidst the acclamations of the assembled multitudes, and the thunder of the cannon of Carthagena.

The passage lasted a week, during which there were frequent bickerings between the General-in-chief and his officers. They disagreed upon almost all the principal points of the enterprise. O'Reilly's chief antagonist was, Major General, the Marquis De la Romana, a very impetuous and haughty man who bitterly censured all the plans of the General.

The first division of the fleet arrived in sight of Algiers on the 30th of June. It consisted of one hundred and eighty transports, eleven men-of-war, and four xebecques. The rest arrived on the 1st of

July. The weather was beautiful. All the vessels were ranged in the best order, and decked out with the whole of their flags, forming a striking *coup d'œil*, but which was not likely to intimidate the Algerines, who had a sovereign contempt for most of the European nations. The Dey, a man of sense, judging from their first evolutions, considered it a vain parade, and said that it would prove an "*espagnolade*" a term which these barbarians were fond of applying to any enterprise, where the end did not answer the grandeur and pomp of the preparations.

The fleet cast anchor in the Bay of Algiers, near the river Haratch to the east of the city. They perceived the enemy's camp extended on the shore, and groups of horsemen galloping about. The Moors appeared so little alarmed that they fired, at sun-set, some salutes of musquetry by way of rejoicing. The order was given for disembarking, but shortly afterwards withdrawn because the night threatened to be stormy, and the wind was blowing towards the land.

A whole week passed in total inaction. The council of war assembled every day, and the time was lost in fruitless discussions, and bitter disputes. La Romana displayed at these meetings his violent temper and dissatisfaction to such a degree, that the General was frequently obliged to call him to order. This imprudent inactivity compromised the success of the enterprise. The Moors ascribed these

delays to fear; and confidence in their own superiority and numbers increased each hour; they became rash even to insolence. This long inaction was impolitic, as it allowed the enemy to reconnoitre, and to take all the measures necessary for their defence, which a prompt disembarking and a rapid series of operations might have prevented.

On the sixth day after their arrival, the Spaniards, wishing to show that they were come with the intention of fighting, sent a man-of-war called the Saint Joseph, to destroy a battery near the place where they had decided on landing. This vessel fired for four hours without being able to hit the battery, which was in such a state of decay, and so destitute of ammunition, that it was long after the first volley from the vessel that the Algerines believed it could be made use of, however they made the attempt, but at the first shot the terrace crumbled beneath the force of the explosion, and cannons and artillerymen disappeared at the same time. The commander of the Saint Joseph, seeing how well fortune seconded his efforts, immediately redoubled his attack, but the Algerines coolly repaired the battery under the fire of the ship which was obliged to withdraw towards four o'clock, after sustaining great loss.

At length the final instructions were given to the army, they described the Moorish mode of combatting, and the tactics proper to oppose them, but these

instructions were so badly acted on, that O'Reilly's adversaries asserted they were given after the event.

"The Moorish method," said the instructions, "is to feign a violent attack, and fly in disorder, on the first resistance, in order to draw the enemy into ambuscade." It was in consequence recommended to the troops not to break their line, and to keep always together. The army on landing was to march in close column, six deep, with the double view of occupying little space, and opposing a solid mass to the Moorish cavalry. Each battalion was to be provided with two hundred tools for mining, and two hundred sacks of earth, in order to be able to raise redoubts for the artillery; and to protect the disembarking of the cavalry, they were particularly ordered to make themselves masters of some height, from whence they could command the place with advantage.

On the 18th, at two o'clock in the morning, a strong division disembarked without opposition, between the mouth of the Haratch and the seventh small fort constructed on the shore of the bay. The Algerines, lost in security, were far from suspecting such boldness, and were greatly astonished, at sunrise, to see ten or twelve thousand men ranged in good order about four miles from the city. They were some time in determining how to act, in order to drive back the assailants. The Spaniards might have profited greatly by this delay, in forming entrench-

ments, and particularly in making themselves masters of a neigbouring battery which greatly annoyed them with its fire; they might have chosen a better ground for operations, their present one having been taken with inconceivable want of skill and ignorance of the place, but they neglected the first cares with which an invading army generally occupies itself.

The disembarkation was effected in sight of eighty thousand barbarians, two thirds of whom were cavalry under the orders of the Bey of Constantina. The Turks remained in the city for its defence; no one attempted to dispute the landing; and the troops formed themselves into compact columns according to the instructions received on the previous evening. It has been seen that these instructions directed them most particularly to keep together, and enjoined the troops who first disembarked, to wait for the others before making any further movement. The infraction of this wise and prudent order defeated the enterprise; the Spaniards committed the fault against which they had been so particularly cautioned.

Scarcely had the van-guard formed, when a small party of the enemy presented itself before them. On this Navarro, the officer of the guard, who commanded the first division, dashed out of the line, brandishing his sword, and crying out "long live religion, long live the faith of Christ. At them, my children." This thoughtless action caused the troops

to follow him ; they rushed towards the Moors, who faithful to their tactics, took flight in disorder. It is to this moment that all the misfortunes of that fatal day may be ascribed. The Spaniards charged with the volunteers of Arragon and Catalonia at their head ; the latter troops were newly raised and badly disciplined, but full of bravery. The enemy still kept retiring, while the Spaniards fatigued themselves in the pursuit without ever reaching them ; this inconsiderate conduct was still more perilous, as the Algerines were endeavouring to cut off the return of the army to their vessels, but they failed in this attempt.

The following details are from the journal of a Spanish officer, engaged in the expedition.

" We kept marching forward until we came to a country covered with enclosures, and where we found small parties of the enemy so advantageously placed in the hedges, that they securely fired upon us, without our being able to reply to it. Our grenadiers and chasseurs who had been sent in advance were driven back. At this moment the Spaniards were supported by some troops of the second disembarkation and the heavy artillery, under the fire of which we were enabled to occupy some posts from whence we opened a heavy fire, but could not dislodge the enemy. Till this time the soldiers had displayed great ardor and intrepidity, but seeing so great a loss of men without the least advantage,

they began to be discouraged. The fire of the first rank slackened, but that of the three others continued, which inconvenienced those in the first line, and augmented the disorder.

All the endeavours of the officers to rally their men were useless, their orders and exhortations were alike of no effect, the troops disorganized by this first check were regardless of discipline; some advanced while others retreated, each followed the dictates of his own will. During this great confusion we suddenly perceived, on our left, a large troop of camels conducted by Moors, with the wish, no doubt, of attracting our fire. The cry of these animals was so frightful that our terrified horses threw their riders. This accident produced a general retreat. Without waiting for orders several brigades formed in columns, but all retreated precipitately. We left upon the field a great number of killed and wounded. The latter supplicated us not to abandon them; they could not all obtain this favor, but those that we were able to save we carried off. We found in our rear an entrenchment mounted with three eight pounders, which had been hastily raised by the troops of the third disembarking to protect our retreat, which was effected undisturbed, thanks to this unexpected assistance and to the good conduct of the commander of the frigates, who opened a brisk and well directed fire from the vessels upon the enemy. Out of seventeen engineers

who came with us, fourteen were wounded, the three survivors were not sufficient to conduct the works, and the result was that the entrenchments were much too small for the whole army. In this painful condition, crowded against each other under a scorching sun, we suffered great loss from the Moorish carbines, which carried much further than our guns, and from thirty six pieces of cannon which were firing upon our right and from the fort near the river Haratch ; this double fire incommoded us dreadfully, in spite of the demi-bastions with which we endeavoured to shelter ourselves. The Moors braved us even in our intrenchments but suffered greatly for their audacity. We remained thus till night, when the troops received the order to re-embark, commencing with the youngest. This manœuvre was executed with so much tumult, disorder and confusion, that had it not been for the extreme ignorance of the enemy, who did not know how to profit by their advantages, nothing could have saved the army from total ruin.

The re-embarking was not made without great disputes between the Generals respecting the propriety of it. O'Reilly had no longer to oppose the haughty irascibility of the Marquis la Romana ; this officer was killed at the head of his division soon after the action commenced, but he found a more inflexible adversary in General Vaughan, an Englishman in the Spanish service. Vaughan resolutely

opposed the departure, he represented that the loss had not materially weakened the army, and he considered it best to pass the night in the intrenchments and attack the enemy the following morning. This step would have been the most honourable and without doubt the wisest ; the Spaniards having gained experience by the first defeat, might easily have avoided a second, nevertheless the majority of the council were of a different opinion, and the order for embarking was given to the troops.

The loss of the Spaniards has been much exaggerated, some have considered it to be fifteen thousand killed, but according to the best authors there were about five or six hundred killed and two thousand wounded. They left fifteen pieces of cannon, three howitzers, a great quantity of arms and almost all the ammunition. As to the wounded abandoned on the field of battle they were all killed by the enemy, as the Dey of Algiers offered a considerable sum for every head that was brought him. They reckoned the loss of the conquerors at five or six thousand men, but it appears that the wounded were included in that number.

The humiliation of the Spaniards was complete O'Reilly wished to bombard Algiers on retiring, as some slight satisfaction to his wounded honor. But the provisions of the army had been landed and captured by the enemy, and those which remained were barely sufficient for the voyage home. All

delay was then impossible ; this act of vengeance could not therefore be carried into effect. They left some vessels of war in the bay in order to keep the Algerine corsairs in awe, and the fleet set sail on the twelfth, carrying to Spain the first news of their disaster. The fleet arrived at Barcelona in the beginning of August."

Such was the issue of this expedition, commenced under such brilliant auspices ; it may be ranked with that of Charles the Fifth, both of them undertaken with the same motives, and ending with similar results. This last catastrophe swelled the pride of the Algerines, and rendered their depredations more audacious and insolent.

WAR WITH THE UNITED STATES.

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Soon after the American declaration of independence, when the ships of that nation began to appear in the Mediterranean, the pirates did not hesitate to capture them whenever they had a favorable opportunity. After some remonstrances, the Americans, conquered by the obstinacy and audacity of the corsairs, consented to send a Consul to Algiers, to defend their rights, that is to say, they engaged to make considerable periodical presents to the Dey, and even to pay a slight tribute. Some years after, the Algerine government, considering this tribute too small, began to consider how to get it encreased, and pretending the presents were deficient in value, availed itself of this pretext to declare war.

The American Congress could no longer bear the idea of paying tribute to the Algerines, and it resolved to put an end to their insolence, accordingly

it made the necessary preparations to send a naval force into the Mediterranean, which should oblige the Regency to conclude a peace, or protect their commerce against the attacks of their cruisers.

In 1815, Mr. Shaler, conjointly with Captains Decatur and Bainbridge, was despatched by the President of the United States to treat for peace. The squadron sent on this occasion consisted of three frigates, one sloop, one brig, and three schooners. It entered the Mediterranean in the beginning of June, and on the 16th of the same month they captured an Algerine frigate near Cape Gatte. Two days after they took a large brig, and on the 28th came in sight of Algiers. Conformable to their instructions they stated to the Regency the conditions of peace. The Algerines appeared confounded by these events, and as all their cruisers were absent, they accepted them almost without discussion. The treaty was signed on the 30th of June, and on the evening of the same day Mr. Shaler landed as Consul General of the United States, a title which the President had conferred on him, in the event of peace being concluded.

LORD EXMOUTH'S EXPEDITION.

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At the beginning of 1816, the Right Honorable Edward Pellew, Lord Exmouth, was ordered to proceed to the different Barbary Powers, to claim the release of all the Ionian slaves, who, by certain political arrangements, had become British subjects, and to make peace for Sardinia. These were to be matters of compulsion; but he was also to make peace for any of the other states in the Mediterranean, who would authorise him to do so. Naples readily availed herself of his offer. Unable to protect herself, it was to her an inestimable blessing to gain security from such a dreadful scourge, on the easiest terms which the influence of the first maritime power could obtain for her.

Lord Exmouth afterwards visited Rome; but the Pope declined the offer of his services, perhaps from difficulties arising out of religious scruples, at confiding a formal trust to a Protestant.

Before he took any steps in fulfilment of his instructions, he made the arrangement necessary for an attack, which was to be the alternative if negotiations failed, a result much to be expected at Algiers, which had hitherto withstood so many formidable armaments. He ordered Captain Warde, of the Banterer, to proceed to Algiers, where he was carefully to observe the town and the nature of its defences. Lord Exmouth's instructions on this occasion, and which were written with his own hand, afford an admirable illustration of the forethought with which he provided for every contingency, and which was the chief secret of his constant success.

It were injustice to Captain Warde to state how he performed this difficult and important service, in any language but that of the Admiral. In his despatch, which accompanied the treaty made with Tripoli, and which he sent to the Admiralty, when proceeding on his second visit to Algiers, he writes—"Previous to my leaving Leghorn, I despatched Captain Warde, in the Banterer, to Algiers, to make his observations on the anchorage and sea defences, which service he performed with entire secrecy and judgment, and highly to my satisfaction. The accompanying plan of the works, with his remarks after visiting all the forts and arsenal, I found correct in every respect; and when it is considered that he had not the means of taking angles, but was

compelled to pace the distances, and trust much to his recollection, to avoid being suspected, I think him deserving of the highest commendation. The soundings round the mole and the bay, to the north west of the lighthouse, were all made by him, personally, in the night without discovery: nor did even the Consul suspect the purport of his visit."

It adds to the merit of this officer, that all the previous plans of Algiers were so incorrect, that he was obliged to begin his own from the outlines, as if the place were a new discovery. Lord Exmouth afterwards declared that if he had proceeded to hostilities at his first visit, without having been furnished with Captain Warde's plan and observations, he should have assigned to the ships, situations which they could not have occupied. The plan in the Admiralty book of Charts, among other inaccuracies, laid down the sea face of the city, as four miles long, instead of one; omitted the bay to the north west of the lighthouse; represented the pier, in which the strong fortifications are built, as quite straight from the lighthouse in a southerly direction, whereas it forms a quarter of the compass, bending round to the south west, or towards the city: and laid the distance between the piers at the entrance of the mole, a mile, instead of sixty or sixty five fathoms. Notwithstanding this, and the great disadvantages arising from the secrecy he was compelled to observe, Captain Warde's observations were

so accurate and complete, that Lord Exmouth afterwards sent to the Admiralty his original plan, to illustrate the despatches of the battle.

Thus prepared for every alternative, Lord Exmouth on the 21st of March, made known to the squadron the service upon which they were proceeding.

The squadron went in the first place to Algiers, where Lord Exmouth obtained the objects of his mission without difficulty. The Ionian slaves were freely released as British subjects; and peace was made for Naples and Sardinia, the former paying a ransom of five hundred, the latter of three hundred dollars a head. The fleet then sailed for Tunis, where accident gave an entirely new character to the subsequent proceedings. Lord Exmouth had directed the Interpreter to tell the Bey, that it would be very agreeable to the Prince Regent if slavery were abolished; but the Interpreter, by mistake, said that the Prince Regent had determined to abolish it. Upon this the negotiation was suspended; and the Divan assembled. Lord Exmouth soon became aware of the mistake, and availing himself of the important advantage which it gave him, he allowed them two hours for deliberation, and retired to the Consul's house to await the result. Before the time expired, he was sent for, and imformed that the Divan had deliberated on his proposal and would comply with it. Proceeding to

Tripoli he made a similar demand, and it was there submitted to without hesitation.

In the mean time, he had received instructions to claim from Algiers the privilege of selling prizes, and refitting privateers in that port, which had lately been granted by treaty to America. Returning on this errand, he took the opportunity to press, as at the other Regencies, the abolition of Christian slavery; but here he had a more formidable power to deal with. His demand was refused, and when he hinted at the alternative of force, the Dey answered as a man confident in his strength to resist it. Lord Exmouth assured him that he formed a very inadequate idea of a British man-of-war, and declared, that if hostilities should become necessary, he would engage, with five line of battle ships, to destroy the place. A very sharp altercation ensued, and Lord Exmouth left the Divan, giving them two hours to consider his proposal. When the time expired, he took Mr. M'Donell, the Consul, and walked with him towards the boat: but they were stopped at the gate. After a communication had been made to the Dey, Lord Exmouth was allowed to pass on, but the consul was detained, on the pretext that money was due from Portugal, for which, as well as for England, Mr. M'Donell was accredited. The whole party had been in the greatest danger. The crowd who surrounded them, discussed aloud the question of put-

ting them all to death: and the conduct of the captain of the port was extremely suspicious. He was observed to cock his pistol, and Sir Israel Pellew exclaiming, "at least we will die with arms in our hands," attempted to draw his sword. Happily the pressure of the throng prevented him; for in the temper which then prevailed, the appearance of a hostile movement would probably have been fatal. Lord Exmouth was much irritated at this outrage, and when one of the principal officers of state followed, and asked him, as he was just stepping into the boat, to allow them two days to consider his proposal, he replied with warmth "No! not two hours!" Hastening on board, he got the fleet under weigh to attack the place immediately; but the wind was too strong to allow the ships to take their stations, and they were obliged to anchor again.

Two British officers, captains Pechell and Warde, had gone on shore, not anticipating a hostile movement, were seized by the people, who dragged them off their horses, riffled their pockets, tied their hands behind them, and in this state marched them through the town into the presence of the Dey. But when they reached the palace they were immediately released, and except some trifling articles, which could not be found, all their property was restored. After two or three interviews with the Dey, the object of which appeared to be to investigate the cause of a cut, which Captain Pechell had received

on the hand when he was taken off the horse, they were allowed to go to their ships. Such conduct at a moment when Lord Exmouth was evidently preparing to attack the place, indicated an irresolution which might enable him to gain his object without a battle ; and next morning, as a calm, with a heavy swell, prevented the fleet from moving, he sent Captain Dundas, of the Tagus, with renewed proposals. The result was, that Sir Israel Pellew, with Captains Brisbane, Pechell, Dundas, Warde and others, went on shore : and the Dey agreed to appoint an ambassador, who should proceed first to Constantinople for the sanction of the Porte, and thence to England to treat on Lord Exmouth's proposal. It may be supposed that the Admiral would not have endured this evasion, had he been authorised to act ; but he had pressed the demand without instructions, and felt that he would not be justified in resorting to force, if it could be creditably avoided. He was not even certain that his conduct, in thus pressing the abolition of slavery, would be favorably received ; for it was a common remark, that the obstructions to the navigation of the Mediterranean, created by the Barbary Corsairs, were advantageous to British commerce.

Lord Exmouth had not yet reached England, when accounts arrived which determined the government not to await the issue of the proposed negotiations with Algiers, but at once to exact the most

ample satisfaction and security. On the 23rd of May, the crews of the Coral fishing-vessels at Bona had landed to attend mass, it being Ascension-day, when they were attacked by a large body of Turkish troops, and most barbarously massacred. Lord Exmouth was at Algiers when this took place; but as Bona is two hundred miles to the eastward, and he sailed as soon as he had agreed with the Dey, he did not hear of it until he arrived in England; and thus it devolved upon the British Government to direct the measures which such an atrocity demanded. Justly concluding that these barbarians, so long the common enemies of the civilized world, and whose very existence was a reproach to it, had filled the measure of their crimes by this last, bloody outrage, they determined to exact complete submission, or to inflict the most signal vengeance. They appointed Lord Exmouth to complete his work, and placed at his disposal whatever force he thought necessary to effect it.

THE BATTLE OF ALGIERS.

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At the time Lord Exmouth attacked Algiers all the sea-front of the city, as well as all the works round the harbour, were covered with the strongest fortifications. Immediately beyond the pier-head stood the light-house battery, a large, circular for tmounting between sixty and seventy guns, in three tiers. At the extremity of the point of rock beyond the light-house was a very heavy battery, of two tiers, mounting thirty guns and seven mortars in the upper. The mole itself was filled with cannon, like the side of a line-of-battle ship, mostly disposed in a double tier with ports below, and embrasures above: but the eastern batteries, next the light-house, had an inner fortification, with a third tier of guns, making sixty six in these batteries alone. These batteries had altogether above two hundred and twenty guns, eighteen twenty-four, and thirty-two pounders; besides two, at least, sixty-eight pounders, and upwards of twenty feet long. On the sea wall of the town were nine batteries; two at the southern extremity;

then the Fish-market battery in three tiers, bearing three hundred yards west of the mole head ; three between the Fish-market and the gate leading to the mole ; one over this gate ; and two on the wall beyond it. Along the shore, within twelve hundred yards south of the town, were three batteries, and a very heavy fort. Another large fort, and six batteries, commanded the bay to the north-west. Many guns in other parts of the fortifications of the town, and in forts and batteries on the hills around it, were in situations which enabled them to fire upon the ships. Altogether, the approaches by sea were defended by scarcely less than five hundred guns.

The Admiralty were greatly surprised, when Lord Exmouth proposed to attack these works with five sail of the line. Many naval officers who were consulted by the Board considered them unassailable. Nelson, in a conversation with Captain Brisbane, had named twenty-five line-of-battle ships as the force which would be required to attack them. The opinion was not founded upon his own observation, and he was evidently misled by the errors in the received plans : for that number of ships could not have been placed before the town ; but it marks his sense of the great danger in attacking powerful batteries with ships, and of the tremendous strength of Algiers. Lord Exmouth was offered any force he required, but he adhered to his first demand ; for he had satisfied himself that five ships could destroy

the fortifications on the mole, as effectually as a greater number, and with far more safety to themselves. After he had fully explained his plans, and marked the position which every ship was to occupy, the Admiralty allowed him to act upon his own judgment: though they found it not easy to believe that the force was equal to the service; nor were persons wanting to remark that he had, at length, involved himself in a difficulty, from which he would not escape with credit. His own confidence never wavered. "All will go well," he wrote, "as far at least as it depends on me." As he was going down the Channel, he said to his brother, who accompanied him as far as Falmouth, "if they open their fire when the ships are coming up, and cripple them in the masts, the difficulty and loss will be greater: but if they allow us to take our stations, I am sure of them, for I know that nothing can resist a line of battle ship's fire." He wrote to the Admiralty before he left England, declaring himself fully satisfied with all the arrangements, and taking on himself the responsibility of the result.

In addition to the five line-of-battle ships, two of which were three-deckers, the force included three heavy frigates, and two smaller ones; four bomb-vessels, and five gun-brigs. Four of the line-of-battle ships were to destroy the fortifications on the mole, while the fifth covered them from the batteries south of the town, and the heavy frigates, from those

on the town wall. The bomb-vessels were to fire on the arsenal and town, assisted by a flotilla of the ships, launches, &c., fitted as gun, rocket, and mortar-boats. The smaller frigates and the brigs were to assist as circumstances might require.

The fleet left Portsmouth on the 25th of July. On the 28th, it sailed from Plymouth Sound, and the same afternoon was off Falmouth. On the 9th of August, the fleet reached Gibraltar, where the Minden had arrived only the preceding night. Here they found a Dutch squadron of five frigates and a corvette, commanded by Vice-Admiral the Baron Von de Capellan, who, on learning the object of the expedition, solicited and obtained leave to co-operate. The ships, having completed their ordnance stores and provisions, were ready to sail on the 12th ; but a strong, easterly wind prevented them from moving for two days. On the 13th every ship received a plan of the fortifications, with full instructions respecting the position she was to occupy. A general order to this effect had been issued on the 6th ; but the co-operation of the Dutch squadron had made some change in the arrangements necessary. To this squadron was assigned the duty of attacking the fort and batteries south of the town, a service previously intended for the Minden and Hebrus, which were now to take a position among their consorts, in front of the mole.

The fleet sailed next day, and on the 16th was

within two hundred miles of its destination, when the wind again shifted to the eastward. That evening, the ship-sloop, Prometheus, Captain Dashwood, joined, direct from Algiers, with information that the Algerines were making every preparation to meet the attack. All the former defences had been made completely effective, and new works had been added ; forty thousand troops had been assembled, all the Turkish militia called in from distant garrisons, and the whole naval force of the Regency, four frigates, five large corvettes, and thirty-seven gun boats, were collected in the harbour. The Prometheus brought the wife, daughter, and infant child of Mr. M'Donell, the British Consul. The two former had succeeded in getting off, disguised as midshipmen ; but the infant, which had been carefully concealed in a basket, after a composing medicine had been given to it by the surgeon of the Prometheus, awoke, and cried as it was passing the gateway, and thus led to the arrest of all the party then on shore. The child was sent off next morning by the Dey, and " as a solitary instance of his humanity," said Lord Exmouth, " it ought to be recorded by me ;" but the Consul was confined in irons at his house, and the surgeon, three midshipmen, and fourteen seamen of the Prometheus, were detained as prisoners ; nor could the most urgent remonstrances of Captain Dashwood induce the Dey to release them.

The fleet continued beating against a head wind until midnight on the 24th, when the wind shifted to the south-west. On Monday, the 26th, at noon, they made Cape Cazzina, the northern point of the bay of Algiers, and about twenty miles from the town. Next morning, at day-break, Algiers itself was in sight. As the ships lay nearly becalmed; Lord Exmouth sent away Lieutenant Burgess, in one of the Queen Charlotte's boats, under a flag of truce, with the terms dictated by the Prince Regent, and a demand for the immediate liberation of the Consul and the people of the Prometheus. The Severn was directed to tow the boat; but as she made very little way, the boat was ordered by signal to cast off, and proceed alone to the shore. At eleven o'clock, she was met outside the mole, by the Captain of the port, who received the communication and promised an answer in two hours. In the mean time, a breeze springing up from the sea, the fleet stood into the bay, and lay to about a mile from the town.

At two o'clock the boat was seen returning, with the signal that no answer had been given. The Queen Charlotte immediately telegraphed to the fleet, "Are you ready?" Immediately the affirmative was displayed from every ship, and all bore up to their appointed stations.

The Queen Charlotte led to the attack. It was Lord Exmouth's intention not to reply to the enemy's

fire in bearing down, unless it should become galling. In that case, the middle and main deck guns, thirty long twenty-four pounders, were to have opened, keeping the upper deck for shortening sail, and the lower for working the cables. The guns on these decks were not primed until the ship had anchored. But the Algerines reserved their fire, confident in the strength of their defences, and expecting to carry the flag ship, by boarding her from the gun boats, which were all filled with men. Steered by the master of the fleet, Mr, Gaze, who had sailed with Lord Exmouth in every ship he commanded from the beginning of the war, the Queen Charlotte proceeded silently to her position. At half-past two, she anchored by the stern, just half a cable's length from the Mole-head, and was lashed by a hawser to the main-mast of an Algerine brig, which lay at the entrance of the harbour. Her starboard broadside flanked all the batteries from the mole-head to the Light-house. The mole was crowded with troops, many of whom got upon the parapet to look at the ship ; and Lord Exmouth, observing them as he stood upon the poop, waved to them to move away. As soon as the ship was fairly placed, and her cables stoppered, the crew gave three hearty cheers, such as Englishmen only can give. Scarcely had the sound of the last died away, when a gun was fired from the upper tier of the eastern battery, and a second and a third followed in quick succes-

sion. One of the shots struck the Superb. At the first flash, Lord Exmouth gave the order, "Stand by!"—at the second, "Fire!" The report of the third gun was drowned in the thunder of the Queen Charlotte's broadside.

The enemy now opened from all their batteries, the Queen Charlotte and Leander being the only ships which had yet reached their stations. Preparations had been previously made in all, to avoid the necessity of exposing the men aloft when shortening sail. Following the flag-ship, the Superb anchored about two hundred and fifty yards astern of her, and the Minden at about her own length from the Superb. The Albion came to astern of the Minden, which passed her stream cable out of the larboard gun room port, to the Albion's bow, and brought the two ships together. The Impregnable was anchored astern of the Albion.

The large frigates, and the Dutch squadron, particularly the Melampus, their flag-ship, went into action under a very heavy fire, and with a gallantry that never was surpassed. The Leander had placed herself on the Queen Charlotte's larboard bow, at the entrance of the harbour; her starboard broadside bearing upon the Algerine gun boats with the after guns, and upon the fish-market battery with the others. The Severn lay a-head of the Leander, with all her starboard broadside bearing upon the fish-market battery. Beyond her, the Glasgow fired

upon the town batteries with her larboard guns. The Dutch squadron took the assigned position, before the works to the southward of the town. It was their Admiral's intention to place the Melampus in the centre ; but his second a-head, the Diana, having anchored too far to the southward to allow this, he pushed the Melampus past her, and anchored close astern of the Glasgow.

The two smaller frigates, the Hebrus and Granicus, were left to take part in the battle wherever they might find an opening. Eager to gain a position in the line, the Hebrus pressed forward to place herself next the flag ship, till, becalmed by the cannonade, she was obliged to anchor on the Queen Charlotte's larboard quarter. Captain Wise of the Granicus, waited until all the ships had taken their stations. Then, setting top gallant sails and courses, he steered for where Lord Exmouth's flag was seen towering above the smoke ; and with a seamanship equalled only by his intrepidity, anchored in the open space between the Queen Charlotte and the Superb ; thus, with a small class frigate, taking a position, " of which," said Lord Exmouth, " a three decker might be justly proud."

Eastward of the lighthouse, at the distance of two thousand yards, were placed the bomb vessels ; whose shells were thrown with admirable precision by the marine artillery. The smaller vessels, except the Mutine, which anchored, continued under

sail, firing occasionally wherever they saw an opportunity. The flotilla of gun, rocket, and mortar boats, directed by Captain Michell, were distributed at the openings, between the line of battle ships, and at the entrance to the mole.

Thus the ships commanded the strongest of the enemy's defences, while they were exposed to the weakest part of his fire. The officers and men felt new confidence when they saw the power derived from the admirable disposition of their force. All behaved most nobly: and it was not long before the state of the Algerine batteries gave proof that their courage was fully equalled by their skill.

In a few minutes, indeed, before the battle had become general, the Queen Charlotte had ruined the fortifications on the mole head. She then sprang her broadside towards the northward, to bear upon the batteries over the gate which leads to the mole, and upon the upper works of the lighthouse. Her shot struck with the most fatal accuracy, crumbling the tower of the lighthouse to ruins and bringing down gun after gun from the batteries. The last of these guns was dismounted just as the artillerymen were in the act of discharging it: when an Algerine Chief was seen to spring upon the ruins of the parapet, and with impotent rage, to shake his scimitar against the ship. Her men proved themselves as expert amidst the realities of war, as they had before shown themselves in exercise; and some

of them were detected amusing themselves, in the wantonness of their skill, by firing at the Algerine flagstaffs.

Soon after the battle began, the enemy's flotilla of gun boats advanced, with a daring which deserved a better fate, to board the Queen Charlotte and Leander. The smoke covered them at first, but as soon as they were seen, a few guns, chiefly from the Leander, sent thirty three out of thirty seven to the bottom.

At four o'clock, when a general and heavy fire had been maintained for more than an hour without producing any appearance of submission, Lord Exmouth determined to destroy the Algerine ships. Accordingly the Leander, having first been ordered to cease firing, the flag ship's barge, directed by Lieutenant Peter Richards, with Major Gossett, of the miners, Lieutenant Wolrige, of the marines, and Mr. M'Clintock, a midshipman, boarded the nearest frigate, and fired her so effectually with the laboratory torches and a carcass shell, placed on the main deck, that she was completely in flames almost before the barge's crew were over her side. The crew of a rocket boat, belonging to the Hebrus, were prompted by a natural, but unfortunate ardour, to follow the barge, though forbidden ; but the boat pulling heavily, she became exposed to a fire of musketry, which killed an officer and three men, and wounded several others. Lord Exmouth stood

watching the barge from the gang-way, delighted with the gallantry and promptitude with which his orders were executed. When the frigate burst into a flame, he telegraphed to the fleet the animating signal, " Infallible," and as the barge was returning, he ordered those around him to welcome her alongside with three cheers.

It was hoped that the flames would communicate from this frigate to the rest of the Algerine shipping ; but she burnt from her moorings, and passing clear of her consorts, drifted along the broadsides of the Queen Charlotte and Leander, and grounded a-head of the latter, under the wall of the town. The gun boats and the Queen Charlotte's launch then opened, with carcass-shells, upon the largest frigate, which was moored in the centre of the other ships, too far within the mole to be attempted safely by boarding. They soon set her on fire, and notwithstanding the exertions of the Algerines, she was completely in flames by six o'clock. From her the fire communicated, first to all the other vessels in the port, except a brig and a schooner, moored in the upper part of it, and afterwards to the storehouses and Arsenal. At a little past seven, she came drifting out of the harbour, and passed so close to the flag ship, as nearly to involve her in the same destruction.

About sun-set, a message was received from Rear-Admiral Milne, requesting that a frigate might be

sent to divert from the Impregnable some of the fire under which she was suffering. She had anchored more to the northward than was intended, and consequently became exposed to the heavy battery on the point of rock beyond the light-house, and which was covered from the fire of the rest of the fleet. The Glasgow weighed immediately, but the wind had been driven away by the cannonade, and she was only able after three quarters of an hour's exertion, to reach a new position between the Severn and Leander; a better for annoying the enemy, but where she was herself more exposed, and suffered in proportion. As it was found impossible to assist the Impregnable, Lord Exmouth sent on board Mr. Triscot, one of his aides-de-camp, with permission to haul off. The Impregnable was then dreadfully cut up: one hundred and fifty men had been already killed and wounded, a full third of them by an explosion, and the shot was still coming in fast; but her brave crew, guided and encouraged by the Rear-Admiral and Captain Brace, two of the most distinguished, and successful officers in the service, would not allow her to go thus out of battle, and she kept her station, maintaining an animated fire to the last. To relieve her in some degree, an ordnance sloop, which had been fitted at Gibraltar as an explosion vessel, with one hundred and forty three barrels of powder was placed at the disposal of the Rear-Admiral. She had been intended for the destruction of the Alge-

rine fleet ; but this service had already been effected by other means. Conducted by Lieutenant Fleming, who had been commanding a gun boat near the Queen Charlotte, with Major Reed of the engineers, and Captain Herbert Powell, a volunteer on board the Impregnable, the explosion vessel was run on shore under the battery which had annoyed her ; and where, at nine o'clock, she blew up.

The fleet slackened their fire towards night, as the guns of the enemy became silenced, and the ships began to feel the necessity for husbanding their ammunition. Their expenditure had been beyond all parallel. They fired nearly one hundred and eighteen tons of powder, and fifty thousand shot, weighing more than five hundred tons of iron ; besides nine hundred and sixty thirteen and ten inch shells thrown by the bomb vessels, and the shells and rockets from the Flotilla. Such a fire, close, concentrated, and well directed as it was, nothing could resist ; and the sea defences of Algiers, with great part of the town itself, were shattered, and crumbled to ruins.

At a little before ten, the objects of the attack having been effected, the Queen Charlotte's lower cable was cut, and her head hauled round to seaward. She continued however to engage with all the guns abaft the mainmast, sometimes on both sides. Warps were run out to gain an offing, but many of them were cut by shot from the batteries

southward of the town, which had heen very partially engaged: and also from forts on the hills out of reach of the ships' guns. A very light air was felt about half-past ten, and sail was made; but the ship, after cutting from her remaining warps and anchors, was manageable only by the aid of her boats towing; and then the only point gained was keeping her head from the land. At eleven, she began to draw out from the batteries, and at twenty five minutes past, she ceased to fire. The breeze freshened, and a tremendous storm of thunder and lightning came on, with torrents of rain; while the flaming ships and store-houses illuminated all the ruins, and increased the grandeur of the scene. In about three hours, the storm subsided; and as soon as the ship was made snug, Lord Exmouth assembled in his cabin all the wounded who could be moved with safety, that they might unite with him and his officers in offering thanksgiving to God for their victory and preservation.

The two Admirals came on board the Queen Charlotte as soon as they could leave their ships, and spoke their feelings of admiration and gratitude to Lord Exmouth, with all the warmth of language and expression. The Dutch Admiral, who, with his squadron, had most nobly emulated the conduct of his British allies, declared himself in terms of the highest eulogy of the Queen Charlotte, which he said, by her commanding position and the effect

of her fire, had saved five hundred men to the fleet. Perhaps there was no exaggeration in the praise: for the destruction occasioned by her first broad-side, as she lay flanking the Mole, must have contributed much to protect the ships which had not yet reached their stations; and the havoc she inflicted by a cannonade of nine hours must have been great indeed, since her fire could destroy the fortifications on the Mole-head in a few minutes.

In no former general action, had the casualties been so great in proportion to the force employed. One hundred and twenty-eight were killed, and six hundred and ninety wounded, in the British ships; and thirteen killed, and fifty-two wounded in the Dutch squadron. Yet, except the Impregnable, which had fifty men killed, no ship suffered so much as is usual in a severe engagement. Generally in fleet actions, the brunt of the battle, and the chief amount of loss, fall upon a few; but here every ship had her allotted duty, and was closely engaged throughout. After the Impregnable, the frigates suffered the most, particularly the Granicus, which took a line of battle ship's station: and the Leander, which was much cut up by the Fish-market and other batteries, and as late as seven o'clock, was obliged to carry out a hawser to the Severn, to enable her to bear her broad-side upon one which annoyed her. The loss in the other line of battle ships was remarkably small. They had together

but twenty-six killed, including the casualties in their respective boats.

Lord Exmouth escaped most narrowly. He was struck in three places; and a cannon shot tore away the skirts of his coat. A button was afterwards found in the signal locker; and the shot broke one of the glasses and bulged the rim of the spectacles in his pocket. He gave the spectacles to his valued friend, the late gallant Sir Richard Keats; who caused their history to be engraved on them, and directed that when he died, they should be restored to Lord Exmouth's family, to be kept as a memorial of his extraordinary preservation.

On the 28th, at daylight, Lieutenant Burgess was sent on shore with a flag of truce, and the demands of the preceding morning; the bomb vessels at the same time resuming their positions. The captain of one of the destroyed frigates met the boat, and declared that an answer had been sent the day before, but that no boat was at hand to receive it. Shortly after the captain of the port came off, accompanied by the Swedish Consul, and informed Lord Exmouth that all his demands would be submitted to. On the morning of the 29th, the captain of the port came off again, being now accompanied by the British Consul; upon which Captain Brisbane, of the flag ship, went on shore, and had a conference with the Dey. Sir Charles Penrose, whom the Admiral had expected to the last, arrived this day in the Ister

frigate from Malta, where he had waited for his expected orders, until he heard that Lord Exmouth was in the Mediterranean. Lord Exmouth committed to him the management of the negotiations, the only compliment he could now offer. Where nothing remained but submission for the vanquished, the arrangements were soon concluded, and next day the final result was officially communicated to the fleet.

Queen Charlotte, Algiers' Bay.
August 30*th* 1816.

GENERAL MEMORANDUM.

" The Commander-in-Chief is happy to inform the fleet of the final termination of their strenuous exertions, by the signature of peace, confirmed under a salute of twenty one guns, on the following conditions, dictated by his Royal Highness the Prince Regent of England.

" 1. The abolition of christian slavery for ever.

" 2. The delivery to my flag of all slaves in the dominions of the Dey, to whatever nation they may belong, at noon to-morrow.

" 3. To deliver also to my flag, all money received by him for the redemption of slaves since the commencement of this year—at noon also to-morrow.

" 4. Reparation has been made to the British Consul for all losses he has sustained in consequence of his confinement.

" 5. The Dey has made a public apology, in presence of his ministers and officers, and begged pardon of the Consul, in terms dictated by the Captain of the Queen Charlotte.

" The Commander-in-Chief takes this opportunity of again returniug his public thanks to the Admirals, Captains, Officers, Seamen, Marines, Royal Sappers and Miners, Royal Marine Artillery, and the Royal Rocket Corps, for the noble support he has received from them throughout the whole of this arduous service; and he is pleased to direct, that on Sunday next a public thanksgiving shall be offered up to Almighty God for the signal interposition of his Divine Providence during the conflict, which took place on the 27th, between his Majesty's fleet, and the ferocious enemies of mankind.

" It is requested that this memorandum may be read to the ships' company."

Above twelve hundred slaves were embarked on the 31st, making with those liberated a few weeks before, more than three thousand, whom, by address or force, Lord Exmouth had delivered from slavery. Having sent them to their respective countries, and leaving a ship to receive a few who had yet to come from the interior, he sailed on the 3rd of September for England. On the 8th, when on his

way to Gibraltar, he wrote an account of the battle to his brother, to whom he had previously sent a very laconic communication, stating merely the result.

"It has pleased God to give me again the opportunity of writing to you, and it has also pleased Him to give success to our efforts against these hordes of barbarians. I never, however, saw any set of men more obstinate at their guns, and it was superior fire only that could keep them back. To be sure, nothing could stand before the Queen Charlotte's broadside; everything fell before it, and the Swedish Consul assures me, we killed above five hundred at the very first fire, from the crowded way in which troops were drawn up four deep above the gun-boats, which were also full of men. I had myself beckoned to many around the guns close to us, to move away, previous to giving the order to fire, and I believe they are within bounds when they state their loss at seven thousand men. Our old friend, John Gaze, was as steady as a rock; and it was a glorious sight to see the Queen Charlotte take her anchorage, and to see her flag towering on high, when she appeared to be in the flames of the mole itself; and never was a ship nearer burnt; it almost scorched me off the poop; we were obliged to haul in the ensign, or it would have caught fire. Every body behaved uncommonly well. Admiral Milne came on board at two o'clock in the morning, and

kissed my hand fifty times before the people, as did the Dutch Admiral, Von Capellan. I was but slightly touched in the thigh, face, and fingers—my glass cut in my hand, and the skirts of my coat torn off by a large shot ; but as I bled a good deal, it looked as if I was badly hurt, and it was gratifying to see and hear how it was received even in the cockpit, which was then pretty full. My thigh is not quite skinned over, but I am perfectly well, and hope to reach Portsmouth by the 10th of October. Ferdinand (King of Spain) has sent me a diamond star. Wise behaved most nobly, and took up a line-of-battle ship's station—but all behaved nobly. I never saw such enthusiasm in all my service. Not a wretch shrunk any where ; and I assure you it was a very arduous task, but I had formed a very correct judgment of all I saw, and was confident, if supported, I should succeed. I could not wait for an off-shore wind to attack ; the season was too far advanced, and the land winds became light and calmy. I was forced to attack at once with a lee-shore, or perhaps wait a week for a precarious wind along shore ; and I was quite sure I should have a breeze off the land about one or two in the morning, and equally sure we could hold out to that time. Blessed be God ! it came, and a dreadful night with it, of thunder, lightning, and rain, as heavy as ever I saw. Several ships had expended all their powder, and been supplied from the brigs. I had latterly husbanded, and only fired when they fired on us ;

and we expended three hundred and fifty barrels, and five thousand, four hundred and twenty shot, weighing above sixty-five tons of iron. Such a state of ruin of fortifications and houses was never seen, and it is the opinion of all the Consuls, that two hours more fire would have levelled the town, the walls are all so cracked ; even the aqueducts were broken up, and the people famishing for water. The sea defences, to be made effective, must be re-built from the foundation. The fire all round the mole looked like Pandemonium. I never saw anything so grand and so terrific, for I was not on velvet, for fear they would drive on board us. The copper-bottoms floated full of fiery hot charcoal, and were red hot above the surface, so that we could not hook on our fire grapnels to put the boats on, and could do nothing but push fire-boombs, and spring the ship off by our warps, as occasion required."

SLAVES LIBERATED BY LORD EXMOUTH, AT ALGIERS :—

Neapolitans and Sicilians,	1,110	
Sardinians and Genoese,	62	
Piedmontese,	6	
Romans,	174	
Tuscans,	6	
Spaniards,	226	
Portuguese,	1	
Greeks,	7	
Dutch,	28	
English,	18	
French,	2	
Austrians,	2	1,642

AT TUNIS :—		1,642
Neapolitans and Sicilians, - - -	524	
Sardinians and Genoese, - - -	257—	781
AT TRIPOLI :—		
Neapolitans and Sicilians, - - -	422	
Sardinians and Genoese, - - -	144	
Romans, - - - - - - -	10	
Hamburghers, - - - - - -	4—	580
		3,003

Force under the orders of Admiral Lord Exmouth :—

BRITISH.

Queen Charlotte, -	108	Admiral Lord Exmouth, Captain, J. Brisbane, C.B.
Impregnable, - -	104	Rear-Admiral Milne, Captain, Edward Brace, C.B.
Superb, - -	74	Captain, Charles Ekins.
Minden, - - -	74	" William Patterson.
Albion, - -	74	" John Coode.
Leander, - -	50	" Edward Chetham, C.B.
Severn, - -	40	" Hon. Fred. Wm. Aylmer.
Glasgow, - -	40	" Hon. Anthony Maitland.
Hebrus, - -	36	" Edmund Palmer, C.B.
Granicus, - -	36	" William Furlong Wise.
Heron, - -	16	" G. Bentham.
Mutine, - -	16	" James Mould.
Prometheus, -	16	" Wm. Bateman Dashwood.
Infernal, - -	bomb	" Hon. George Jas. Percival.
Hecla, - -	do.	" William Popham.
Fury, - - -	do.	" Constantine R. Moorsom.
Beelzebub. - -	do.	" William Kempthorne
Cordelia - -	10.	" William Sargeant.
Britomart - -	10.	" Robert Riddle.
Express, Schooner.		

The Dutch force consisted of six vessels—five carrying thirty six and one twenty four guns.

The Algerines, notwithstanding this severe and meritorious chastisement, did not long adhere to sentiments of moderation. No time was lost and no effort spared to place the city in a more formidable state of defence than ever, and they considered themselves again in a condition to set even the great powers at defiance.

So far back as the time of Louis the sixteenth, some Algerine merchants supplied the French government with a large quantity of corn from the province of Constantina. Payment was afterwards refused by Napoleon, and the matter was still in dispute when the Bourbons returned to the throne of France. It was then decided that fourteen millions of francs, (five hundred and sixty thousand pounds) should be paid to the Algerines. This award dissatisfied the Dey extremely, annoyances were commenced against the French trade, and on the 25th of April 1827, during the *fêtes* of the Bairam, when the grand functionaries paid their respects to Hussein Dey, the latter perceiving M. Deval, the French Consul, standing among the others, addressed him with great arrogance of manner, and asked,

"Have you a letter from your government to give me?"

"Your Highness knows very well," replied M. Deval, "that the King of France cannot correspond with the Dey of Algiers." On these imprudent words the Dey assailed him with the grossest abuse,

and finished with striking the Consul on the face with a fly flap that he had in his hand.

The offence was public. The Baron de Damas, minister for foreign affairs, wrote to the Dey in the name of the King to complain of the insult, and to demand reparation; but Hussein's obstinacy prevented any accommodation, "It is I," said he, "who have to complain, as M. Deval offended me."

On this the Consul was ordered home, and preparations were made for war.

THE CONQUEST OF ALGIERS.

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France then sent a fleet to this city, but the fortifications on the sea side were so strong, that for more than a year the ships could only prolong an ineffectual blockade, which cost France nearly a million sterling. At length the war on a great scale was resolved on. A large fleet under Admiral Duperre, and a land force of upwards of thirty thousand soldiers under General Bourmont, then minister at war, sailed from Toulon on the 25th of May 1830. After some delay in the bay of Palma in Majorca, this armament reached the coast of Africa, and the troops began to land on the morning of the 14th of June, upon the western side of the peninsular of Sidi Ferej, in the bay of Torre Chica. The disembarkation began at a quarter past four, and continued till twelve. The Algerines at first showed only flying parties of horse, which retreated before the fire of two steam vessels. Afrerwards they

opened a somewhat brisk fire from several batteries, which having kept up for several hours, not without loss on the part of the French, they retreated.

The army continued for some days landing their provisions and stores, with only slight annoyance from flying troops of cavalry. On the 19th however, the Turkish troops in Algiers, being reinforced by the contingents of the Beys of Constantina, Oran, and Titterie, a general attack was made with a force of forty or fifty thousand men. They advanced, outflanking the French army, and charged with such impetuosity as to penetrate the line at several points. After a very obstinate conflict, they were compelled to retreat, and their camp taken and plundered. The French admitted a loss of sixty killed, and four hundred and fifty wounded: and the son of the Commander-in-chief died of his wounds.

The Algerine troops renewed their attacks, on the 24th and 25th, when, after hard combats, they were again repulsed. The French then advanced upon Algiers: on the 29th the trenches were opened, and at four in the morning of the fourth of July, all was disposed for the attack on the fort of the Emperor, so called from its being begun by Charles the Fifth, but completed by Hassan Pacha in 1545. It stands on the south south-westin an advantageous situation, commanding the sea,city, and the adjacent country.

The French batteries were armed, the cannoniers were at their posts, waiting the signal. The Commander-in-chief went to the Spanish Consulate, situated nearly half a mile to the rear of the trenches, in order to overlook the proceedings and give orders. A rocket then announced that the moment of attack was arrived; immediately a half circle of flame glared along the trenches, and the batteries opened a fire which spread terror through the fort. To the horizontal fire of the cannons, was added that of the more terrible mortars.

The artillery of the Sultan Calassi replied vigorously, and the batteries of both armies resembled a volcano vomiting fire from several craters.

The thunder of the fire roused the city, the terraces of the Cashbah were covered with the Turkish militia, and on the French side their army crowded the heights of Boujeiah, contemplating with anxiety a struggle which was preluded by such great efforts.

The fire continued with vivacity on the side of the fort, in a continued succession of volleys, in the middle of a cloud of smoke, which enveloped the edifice.

During four hours the defence was as serious as the attack, the service in the interior of the fort was admirably organized; the soldiers who were killed were instantly replaced by others equally intrepid and devoted. If one of them were wounded

he was given to some Bedoweens who carried him into the lower rooms : more than fifty were occupied in this manner ; others were standing in lines, to pass the ammunition from the magazines to the batteries. The guns were not abandoned by those who served them until they were disabled ; many embrasures were destroyed and the besieged were filling up the spaces with sacks of wool, and replacing the guns, but all their bravery was baffled by the skilfulness of the French artillery officers. As to the Algerine fire, it was directed without skill ; their bullets did little harm, and those shells which fell in or near the French batteries exploded without mischief.

The Algerines were now beginning to despair ; they collected in a body of two thousand men, among which the French shells made frightful ravages ; all the cannons were dismounted, and their carriages broken, the casements driven in, the merlons and the parapet considerably injured. The Turkish Commander, an old man between sixty and seventy, was thrown down three times, but he continued to give his orders with astonishing intrepidity.

The Sultan Calassi, exhausted and breathless, could only speak at intervals, as he was mortally wounded.

General Lafitte, seeing the fire nearly extinguished, gave orders to batter in the breach ; the batteries were accordingly directed at the lower part of the wall

with such effect that it was evident a breach would soon be practicable. At length the south west angle came down with a terrific noise in the middle of a whirlwind of dust.

It was ten o'clock; the garrison, reduced to the utmost extremity, had descended and were retreating upon the road to Algiers, leaving a long train of dead and wounded. The Fort was abandoned by all but three negroes, who, running about, looked like livid phantoms in this atmosphere of smoke. One of them was soon killed by a bullet, the second had his legs broken by another shot, while the third crossing his arms, examined the progress of the breach, tore down the flag which was flying on the Fort, and then, snatching a lighted linstock which he brandished in the air, he descended into the interior of the donjon.

Soon an immense sheet of flame issued from the severed walls of the building followed by a concussion, which shook the entire edifice, bent the strongest trees, and stupified the spectators with its burst of a hundred thunders. A shower of stones, of gun carriages stained with blood and blackened with powder, fell upon the French batteries, together with mutilated limbs, and bodies still palpitating. The army saw that all the western side was thrown down and the tower reduced to a heap of ruins.

A strong detachment of artillery and troops of the line, advanced to the principal entrance of the

Fort to examine it. All the entrances were obstructed by ruins, to a distance of three hundred paces : there were strewed upon the ground, blocks of masonry, arms, and dead bodies. The walls of the Fort were deeply fractured and greatly damaged by shot ; the lower rooms were filled with wounded, that the garrison had not had time to remove. An artilleryman mounted the Fort and stripping off his shirt waved it in sight of the army, who taking it for a white flag saluted it with acclamations. He himself was carried in triumph by his comrades, and thus obtained the honors of an ovation.

The success that the artillery had just obtained excited a general enthusiasm. The evening before, the soldiers were discouraged by the length of the preparations for the siege, now they foresaw a speedy termination to the campaign ; they requested to be led on to the assault, they were eager to occupy the rich houses, and the shady gardens, which covered the hills, and promised a place of rest. Algiers was silent, and seemed plunged in stupor, the explosion of the Fort had struck the Casbah with awe. It now remained for the army to march upon the city. However, before evening a treaty was concluded for the entire surrender of Algiers, and the next day, the 5th of July 1830, the French flag waved on its forts.

Twelve ships of war, fifteen hundred brass cannon, and two millions, twenty eight thousand, five hundred

pounds sterling came into the hands of the conquerors. The Turkish troops were permitted to go wherever they pleased, provided they left Algiers: and the Dey chose Naples for his place of retirement, while most of the soldiers desired to be landed in Asia Minor.

Thus fell Al Jezeire el gazie, or "Algiers the warlike!"

ABD EL KADER AND THE HOLY WAR.

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On the capitulation of Algiers, the Arab tribes, being released from the yoke of their Ottoman rulers, each took up arms under their respective Marabbutts or Saints, to defend their faith, their independence, and their native soil, against the new invaders of their country, and enemies of their religion. The most enlightened amongst the Chiefs soon became aware, that to make any effectual resistance against the common enemy, it would be necessary to appoint a person to the command of the force, which could be united under the sacred banner of the prophet. The family of Abd el Kader being the most ancient of Arab descent, several ot the different Chiefs in the neighbourhood of Mascara, proceeded to his father's residence, which is about twelve miles distant to the south east of that town, and begged that he would once more raise the ancient standard of Arab freedom,

which had for such a lapse of years been partially subjected to the Ottoman powers. This venerable patriarch, then nearly seventy years old, conceiving that the duties which would devolve upon him, were he to accept the important command thus offered, would be more than his constitution could support, declined the offer; but with a patriotism which did honor to his judgment, candidly told the deputation that his advanced stage of life deprived him of that energy which would be requisite to fulfil so important a trust, and that the only one capable of serving the national cause, was his third son, Abd el Kader; "the two eldest," said he, "are not of equal capacity; I have observed and studied their character; in the one I offer you, are alone united the qualities you and the nation require for a leader; he has performed the pilgrimage to Mecca; and to the strictest religious principles, he unites youth, activity, valour, and intelligence." The deputation finding that the old man was determined not to become their Commander-in-Chief, and convinced, that in recommending his third son, he had only in view the welfare of his country, unanimously elected the youthful Chieftain to unfurl the banner of the prophet, and raise the standard of ancient Arabian independence.

Abd el Kader is about five feet seven inches high, and very strong, with hands and feet delicately small and remakably white.

He has an oval face, a fair complexion, pale skin, large and high forehead, with bright, blue eyes full of brilliancy and softness, arched eye-brows and dark eye-lashes, a well made nose slightly acquiline, rather thin lips, and a full, black beard terminating in a point.

His dress is similar to that worn by most of the Arab chiefs: a white burnoose, with large silk tassels on the hood and in front: over which is placed the black burnoose made of camel's hair. The common cord of black or white camel's hair, wreathed in several folds, round the hood of the white burnoose, denotes the religion to which he belongs.

He always carries in his right hand, a small chaplet of black beads which he counts with rapidity, uttering a silent ejaculation with each, such as "God is most great." "Oh, High! Oh, Great! I assert Thy absolute glory." "God is most great in greatness, and praise be to God in abundance," &c. &c.

While thus occupied, this celebrated Arab presents a lively picture of one of the military devotees of the middle age, animated by sublime ideas of courage and religion.

Amongst the most distinguished of the Mahometan Faith in the present day are ranked Mehemet Ali, and the Emir, Abd el Kader; the latter, in his war with the French, is regarded as the defender of his religion, and consequently as the chief of the "Holy

war" as the contest was called by all the Mahometans.

The Emir, like Araoun al Raschid in the "Arabian Nights' Entertainments," frequently went about in disguise, in order to inform himself of the actual state of affairs. One night, walking in the neighbourhood of Tegedempt, about the hour of prayer, he halted to perform his devotions, and was washing his feet in the stream, when a huge lion made its appearance before him. The Emir met the lion's stare, and with a frown, calling him "a dog, and the son of a dog," for intruding upon him at so unseasonable an hour, bade him begone for a kaffer (infidel); the lord of the forest bowed its head before the Defender of the Faithful, and turning tail, walked off. By the Arabs, this was considered as a miracle, wrought by the prophet, in favour of his protégé, the Emir, who is frequently styled by his subjects "the beloved of Mahomet." Others have attributed it to the generosity of this noble animal, who seldom attacks the human species, unless driven to do so by extreme hunger. Such, certainly, might be the reason of the lion's forbearance, if the circumstance is true; but as Abd el Kader is a Marabbutt or "Saint," and it is a fact that all the Marabbutts, who are not mad or foolish, are always practising on the ignorance and credulity of their followers, like the priests of all ages and countries, (excepting of course the Chris-

tian.) I suspect the whole account to be nothing but a "pious fraud" of the Emir's.

The following fact reflects the highest credit on this famous Arab.

Mr. Mason, an intendant-general in the French army, having been taken prisoner near Algiers, by a party of the Arabs, on one of their then frequent visits almost to the gates of the town, was brought before Abd el Kader, who was so much pleased with the noble conduct of this gentleman, who, although a prisoner, and knowing that his head hung upon the slightest signal which the Emir might give to take it off, refused to give any information relative to the intended operations of the French army. Abd el Kader admired him for this manly conduct, and not only allowed him every comfort in his power, but gave him horses to amuse himself riding or shooting during the time he remained at Taasa, to which depôt he was sent: and as there was no Arab prisoner of equal rank among those whom they had to exchange, he sent him to Algiers with the rest, stating that he would not pay him so ill a compliment as to take one in his place, who was his inferior in rank.

On being elected Emir, his first step was to demand a certain number of cavalry from each of the tribes composing the union which had been formed; these amounted to about four hundred. With this small force he commenced by making attacks on the dif-

ferent detached parties of the French : and immediately dispatching circulars to the different tribes far and near, he informed them that God and Mahomet had called him to the command of the Faithful, to defend his religion and country against the infidels, and solicited them to come and place themselves under his banner. The Mussulman faith including the belief that he who falls in the field of battle in defence of his religion, is immediately translated to the acme of a true believer's hopes, viz : "that paradise, where sixty bright houris await his arrival, welcoming the brave warrior to their arms in a land flowing with milk and honey, where he arrives without the danger of passing the bridge of El Harack, on so narrow a footing as that of a camel's hair, where, should the foot slip, he falls into the infernal pit." It is not to be wondered at that he soon found himself at the head of a numerous army, many Mahometans coming long distances with the sole intention of dying in the field of battle. The French were at this time in possession of Tlemecen ; after repeated skirmishes, a general action took place near the river Taafna ; although the field of battle remained on that occasion in possession of the French, it was so severely contested by the Arabs, that General Bugeaud, concluded a treaty of peace, in which the French restored a part of their conquests. This

was on the 30th of May 1837, and was dated at Taafna.

Shortly after, Abd el Kader assumed the regal power, by the title of Sultan, and as such he was recognized by the whole of the territory, from the gates of Oushdah, to the river Mejerda. Being freed from foreign war, the Sultan proceeded to establish every thing in his kingdom upon the European system; he divided it into provinces, each under its respective kalifa or lieutenant general.

The French government, finding that it was his intention to put his kingdom into such a state of improvement, as would, in a short time, render him a powerful and wealthy sovereign, sought, by infringing the late treaty of Taafna in every possible manner, to bring on a fresh rupture with him. By the seventh article of that treaty, he was to be furnished with whatever arms and ammunition he required; notwithstanding which, his oukil or agent at Algiers, was put in irons, and sent a prisoner to France, for having furnished the Emir with those supplies which he had a right to demand by the treaty, and also, for having sent over to him some mechanics, being also an infraction of the tenth article of that treaty. Marshal Vallée was the governor of Algiers; the Emir complained to the French government of the breach of the treaty, and received for answer, that the Marshal had

unlimited authority to act according to his own judgment. The Duke of Orleans also, wishing to pay a visit of "reconnoissance" to Constantina, with as little danger as possible, caused a Jew of Oran to make a seal of the Emir's, which was placed on passports made for the purpose, and presented to the Kaids of the territory through which the French troops were in progress. The deception being found out, the Arabs attacked them in all directions. The Sultan still was unwilling to commence hostilities, and assembled his Kalifas, to hold a council as to what ought to be done; one was absent, Benallel, who thought that it was useless debating anything about the matter; and while the Sultan was consulting, he attacked a French convoy between Meliana and Algiers, and put all debates as to peace or war at an end, by taking off some two hundred heads.

The war was then resumed with various success on both sides, the French prosecuting their razias with great activity.

A razia is an expedition made against any particular tribe, with the intention to kill the male part, burn and destroy every thing which cannot be removed, and carry off the women and children prisoners. To ensure success to expeditions of this nature, they are conducted with the greatest secrecy, steps are taken to surround those thus devoted to destruction, by such forces that escape is impossible, and

they first become aware of the danger they are in, when their assailants' drums are heard beating a reveillé, having been surprised with a cunning which would do credit to a Mohawk Indian.

They once marched a considerable force from Algiers on Meliana, and had attempted to surprise the Sultan's camp. They failed in their principal object, which was to take him prisoner, but his determined courage and horsemanship alone saved him. He was surrounded, and in the middle of a French square, who thought themselves sure of the hundred thousand francs (four thousand pounds), which reward still exists, for the Emir's person, whether dead or alive, but uttering his favourite expression, "Emshallah!" with the will of God, he gave his white horse the spur, and came over their bayonets, escaping without being wounded. He lost, however, about thirty of his body guard, consisting of his personal relations and intimate friends—but he killed six Frenchmen with his own hand, besides taking two prisoners.

The French suffered severely from sickness and the enemy. In December 1841, General Bugeaud stated to the minister at war, that only four thousand men out of an army of sixty thousand, remained fit for active service in the field.

Some time previously to this the French government landed four thousand Frenchmen dressed as Turkish troops, with bands of music in the Turkish

style, and commanded by Omar the son of the former Dey of Algiers.

They issued proclamations, stating that France had given up Algiers to the Porte, and that Omar had been appointed Dey ; that the war was no longer against the infidels, but against true believers in the same holy faith ; and inviting the tribes to place themselves under the guardianship of their former masters, when they would be protected from the iron rule of the Emir, &c. Some tribes, deluded by the uniform and specious proclamations, passed over with their wives and stock : their grain, &c., which they could not remove from the pits, was taken possession of by Abd el Kader ; and when they had crossed over, they were miserably disappointed to find the *ruse*, to which they had fallen victims.

However, notwithstanding occasional brilliant successes, Abd el Kader has been gradually losing all his former power, and it would be surprising were it otherwise, as it is impossible for the undisciplined Arabs, however courageous, to succeed against a French army of eighty thousand men, supplied with a numerous artillery and worked by some of the most able engineers in the world. The result is no more than what could have been anticipated ; the war may be reckoned at an end ; the French have possession of the towns and open country ; they are as

firmly seated in Algeria as the late Turkish government.

The Moniteur Algerien of the 15th of February, 1844, says :

"The latest account states that the Esmaillah, of Abd el Kader, is at Kesdir, situated at the western point of Shott el Gharbie, eighteen or twenty leagues to the south west of Ouetchdah. It consists of barely two hundred tents. The Halleff, a tribe subject to Morocco, were supplying them with grain, and the Heumrianes sent him dates. All the remaining troops belonging to the Emir, have assembled on a part of the Empire of Morocco, called Beni Iala ; they consist of about three hundred and twenty foot, and one hundred and twenty horse.

"The tribes remaining faithful to his cause, exclusive of those at Deyra, are dispersed upon the frontiers of Morocco, and scarcely reckon altogether a thousand tents.

"It appears that Abd el Kader, who can no longer conceal from his followers, the extremity to which he is reduced, avows openly, that at present he has but two hopes, the support of Muley Abd el Rahman, or the peace which this Emperor may make with France ; and he says that if these hopes fail, (which is certain) that he will then have no other resource but to take refuge in the south, and wait for better days."

The conquest and occupation of Algeria have already cost France twenty-six millions, eight hundred thousand pounds. The government has received —first, the treasure taken at Algiers ; in all two millions, one hundred and eighty-nine thousand, four hundred and eighty pounds ; second, the proceeds of revenue from 1831, to 1844, one million, eight hundred and forty thousand pounds. The total loss therefore, up to the present time, has been twenty-two millions, eight hundred and seventy thousand, five hundred and twenty pounds !

According to a communication from the Oran correspondent of the London 'Times,' dated September 21st, 1844 ; it appears that Abd el Kader had taken refuge in the inaccessible chain of mountains called the Rif, which stretches some two hundred miles along the whole line of the northern coast of Morocco. This country was never yet subdued by the sovereign of that Empire.

CAPTAIN MANSELL.

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The following account of an English officer, who obtained permission to serve in the French ranks against Algiers in 1830, is translated from M. Merles' "Anecdotes of the African Expedition."

Captain Mansell is a descendant of Admiral Mansell, who commanded the fleet sent against Algiers, in the reign of Elizabeth.

In 1816, Captain Mansell was an officer on board the Queen Charlotte in Lord Exmouth's Expedition. He was about thirty-six, but owing to a life of hard service, and being naturally of a very excitable temperament he had the appearance of a man of fifty. Captain Mansell is endowed with a lively and ardent imagination. He was at the waters of Toeplitz, in Bohemia; when he heard of the intended expedition against Algiers by the French. From that time he resolved, if possible, to take part in it. I could never ascertain through what interest

he obtained the consent of his government ; but from my personal observation of his character, I feel convinced that he is a most honorable man.

Having procured letters of recommendation, to General Bourmont, he came to Toulon, to that officer's residence, where I have often met him habited in a threadbare coat, buttoned closely, which served to hide a silk waistcoat, soiled with snuff ; he wore a round hat, the brim and crown of which had suffered much in travelling ; his pantaloons, and his boots, were in accordance with the rest of his dress, which, bedecked with epaulettes, and embroidery, had nothing very attractive ; but to the observer, his easy manners, bespeaking his intercourse with good society, his penetrating eye and sensible physiognomy, proved "*Que la lame, valait mieux, que le fourreau.*" That the blade was worth more than the scabbard. Captain Mansell had nothing of the precision and cleanliness which is so remarkable in the English, but he fully possessed the good sense and *sang-froid* of his nation ; and although of a melancholy turn, you were often amused with his gaiety and even humour.

His constant attendance at the table of the General, with whom he was on habits of intimacy, appeared to many very strange ; various opinions passed on the subject ; and the conjectures were not always very favorable to the Captain. He was far from enjoying the same favor, with Admiral

Duperré, that he received from the General. The Admiral viewed him with a malicious eye, and although the General interested himself, to obtain a passage for him on board one of the vessels of the squadron, Captain Mansell was constantly refused.

On the 18th of May, I went on board La Didon, and was walking the deck at nine in the evening, when the sentinel announced a boat to the officer of the watch; it brought Captain Mansell, who presented to the Commandant his order for admission on board; he was pale, thin, and dejected; I went forward to meet him, and to offer my services. "For this evening," he replied "I only desire a glass of water; and as to my lodging, it is useless to speak of that as I shall sleep in my cloak between two cannons; I have passed a day so painful and afflicting to my feelings, that for the rank of Admiral I would not undergo such another." Observing that I was interested, he related to me his misfortunes.

"Yesterday," said he "at midnight, Colonel Bartillat came to me and informed me, that the Admiral had at length consented to receive me on board one of the vessels of the squadron, the frigate La Guerriere, commanded by M. Rabaudy. I had been busy all day making preparations for my departure, and running about for my order of embarkation. At length, at four o'clock, I went on board La Guerriere. The commandant, without doubt prejudiced against me, received me with disdain, which has greatly

shocked my self love, and national dignity, he has concluded by informing me that my name was not on the list of passengers that had been sent to him. I have stifled my resentment on meeting with so insulting a reception to an officer of my rank, but this was trifling to the reception I was doomed to meet from La Provence, where I was next conducted. I was not permitted even to board the vessel. The Admiral had just sat down to dinner and it was impossible to be admitted to his presence; I waited two hours, when the General being informed that I was waiting, insisted so warmly on the performance of the promise that the Admiral had made him, that I obtained a formal order to go on board La Didon: General Bourmont brought it me in the kindest manner; and I am arrived here without knowing if I were to be better received than on board La Guerriere." I replied, "that the General-in-Chief had given a proof of the interest that he takes in your comfort, by placing you with an officer who is considered as one of the kindest and most pleasing in the navy; M. de Villeneuve is what you term in England 'a polished gentleman,' and you will I am asssured feel perfectly satisfied with his arrangements."

Captain Mansell soon perceived that I had not exaggerated the praises of M. de Villeneuve, he found him a pleasant companion, and an officer of great merit.

The varied knowledge of Captain Mansell, his interesting conversation, interspersed with curious anecdotes, the lively manner with which he related the expedition of Lord Exmouth, the manner of fighting, by the Dey's troops, the force of Algiers, &c., made his society sought by all the officers. Soon, in spite of his threadbare coat and his worn out black stock, he was treated with great deference. He was often joking on the philosophical negligence of his costume ; he said he should like to see a melo-drama of the conquest of Algiers, at Franconis' theatre, and that he should see with pleasure, his rusty looking coat, figuring on the back of an actor.

He was so generally well informed on all subjects, that you found him conversing on maritime affairs, with M. de Villeneuve ; military, with General Tholose ; gunnery, with Colonel Auvray ; literature, with Commandant Montcarville ; music, with Captain Chapelié ; and the drama with me.

We shall now have to view him under very different circumstances. At the moment of embarkation, in presence of the masked batteries of the enemy, the scene changed.

We expected a very hot engagement. Captain Mansell appeared on deck, not as we had formerly seen him, but in a simple uniform, carefully adjusted, nearly resembling that of the English marines ; he wore the epaulettes of a Captain, with a white

cockade in his hat ; he had obtained the consent of General Bourmont, to fight under the French colors.

I never saw a happier man, the idea of again combatting under the fire of the Algerine batteries filled him with joy ; he assured me he would not change his position for the richest command in India ; he wore, instead of a sword, a claymore, with a steel hilt of the fashion of the sixteenth century : I forget from what Chief of a clan he had obtained it, but it was not less illustrious than Argyle, Athol, Lindsay or Graham. Captain Mansell was considered as an oracle on board, because of his experience in the force of the Regency, when in the expedition of Lord Exmouth, and his thorough knowledge of the Turkish manner of fighting. Often, when in his gay moods, he would exaggerate the dangers of disembarking, he would say that there were two hundred pieces of cannon in masked battery, and out of the reach of our fire. Speaking seriously he was reckoning that we ought to consider ourselves fortunate, if we lost only three thousand men in the disembarkation, which according to his idea was the most difficult part of the campaign.

I cannot follow him during the battle, but I will add one trait, which admirably characterises this gentleman.

Captain Mansell displayed great valour during the campaign, as volunteer ; from the first he had

solicited and obtained a place at our *avant postes* —he had incorporated himself in a company of grenadiers, partook of their soup with the soldiers, and took his place at the bivouacs.

One night he was walking, according to his custom, buried in philosophical reveries, and enjoying "*en chemise*," the coolness of the night; having approached too near a sentinel, who taking him for a Bedoween, fired at him, but fortunately missed. Captain Mansell advanced towards the man, made himself known, and said with his Britannic *sang-froid*, "Comrade, another time take better observation, and better aim."

The following particulars are from a work written by General Bugeaud, and published in 1842.

IMPORTATIONS.

COUNTRIES.	VALUE IN FRANCS. 1840	1841
France { cru du pays	23,194,976	26,488,438
France { des entrepôts	8,997,946	8,502,510
England,	6,236,605	8,593,407
Tuscany,	6,049,016	5,426,404
Austria,	1,181,762	1,311,457
Two Sicilies,	778,033	2,101,429
Spain,	2,715,306	4,226,303
Sweden and Norway,	789,559	888,898
Denmark,	65,424	117,855
Sardinia,	2,230,587	2,291,901
Roman States,	425,863	552,599
Russia,	550,547	723,124
Greece,	59,201	532,359
Barbary States,	1,054,359	1,244,499
Turkey	3,290	34,500
Egypt,	462,544	983,205
Belgium,		316,229
Low countries,		29,113
Hanse Towns,		365,329
Origines non justifiées,	77,084	164,732
TOTAL.	54,872,102	64,894,291

NOTE. Calculating the exchange at twenty five francs to the pound sterling, twenty five thousand francs is equal to one thousand pounds, and one million francs to forty thousand pounds.

THE END.

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